

# **MASS MEDIA AND INFORMATION SECURITY OF SOCIETY**

**Materials of the international conference  
29 April 2008**

**JOURNALISM FACULTY,  
URAL STATE UNIVERSITY  
NAMED AFTER A.M. GORKY**

**EKATERINBURG**

**2008**

# **MASS MEDIA AND INFORMATION SECURITY OF SOCIETY**

**Materials of the international conference  
29 April 2008**

**Edited by  
Dmitry Strovsky**

Editor expresses a deep gratitude to Dr Greg Simons, a researcher from the University of Uppsala, Sweden, for his invaluable assistance on polishing some articles. Advice from American journalists Margaret Freaney and Catherine Sczypinski as well as from David Mould, Prof. of the University of Ohio, USA, were also greatly appreciative.

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**JOURNALISM FACULTY,  
URAL STATE UNIVERSITY  
NAMED AFTER A.M. GORKY**

**2008**

# Contents / Содержание

## Program

Программа конференции

## Preface

Вступительное слово

## Articles

- |                                                    |                                                                                                                                                             |    |
|----------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Margarita Kovaleva:                                | Information aggression:<br>definition and its structure<br>Информационная агрессия:<br>структура и содержание понятия                                       | 11 |
| Greg Simons:                                       | Information security and the media<br>in contemporary society<br>Информационная безопасность<br>и СМИ в современном обществе                                | 15 |
| Gülseren Sendur Atabek<br>Seçil Deren van het Hof: | Corporate social responsibility:<br>a critical appraisal via Turkish<br>examples<br>Корпоративная социальная<br>ответственность и ее реализация<br>в Турции | 22 |
| Alexey Bykov:                                      | Journalism as a control lever<br>in the information society<br>Журналистика как инструмент<br>управления в информационном<br>обществе                       | 32 |
| Elena Grunt:                                       | Information culture: supporting<br>information security<br>Информационная безопасность<br>в условиях функционирования<br>информационной культуры            | 37 |

<b>Veysel Batmaz:</b>	Discourse analysis as an empirical tool Дискурсивный анализ и возможности его использования на практике
<b>Dmitry Strovsky:</b>	Information globalization: regarding its evolution Информационная глобализация: особенности существования и развития
<b>Oleg Shevtsov:</b>	The openness of the regional information space: following the example of the Belgorod region Открытость регионального информационного пространства (на примере Белгородской области)
<b>Evgeniya Gorina:</b>	The image of the hero: mass media behavior in terms of political instability and «armistice» Имидж героя: поведение СМИ в условиях политической нестабильности и «перемирия»
<b>Irina Volchkova:</b>	Information interpretation and responsibility: in search of harmony Информационная интерпретация и ответственность: в поисках гармонии
<b>Yu. Chemyakin:</b>	Corporate mass media: its definition and values in the information society Корпоративные СМИ: к вопросу об определении и их ценностях в информационном обществе
<b>Ümit Atabek:</b>	Mass media and advertising: the Turkish version of a problematic relationship СМИ и реклама: к специфике взаимоотношений (на примере Турции)

<b>Elina Bulatova:</b>	<b>A question of information society in advertising discourse</b>	<b>99</b>
	<b>Картина информационного общества на примере рекламного дискурса</b>	
<b>Marina Myasnikova:</b>	<b>Media education as an information security factor: the Ural experience</b>	<b>107</b>
	<b>Медиа-образование как фактор упрочения информационной безопасности: Уральский опыт</b>	
<b>Rafail Iskhakov:</b>	<b>Nationally oriented media: preparing a modern journalist</b>	<b>114</b>
	<b>Подготовка журналистских кадров для работы в национальных СМИ</b>	
<b>Galina Gerasimova:</b>	<b>Two-way information in public relations: how to make the sphere more effective to the audience</b>	<b>117</b>
	<b>Взаимодействие с аудиторией в условиях развития связей с общественностью: как обеспечить эффективность развития этой сферы деятельности</b>	

# Program

10.30—11.00 a.m.

Welcome speeches

Приветствие участникам конференции

11.00 a.m. – 1 p.m.

## I panel

*Every discussant has about 20 minutes to submit his/her paper  
and to answer questions*

*Каждому участнику предоставляется примерно 20 минут  
для изложения своего выступления и ответа на вопросы аудитории.*

- Margarita Kovaleva: Information aggression:  
definition and its structure  
Информационная агрессия: структура  
и содержание понятия
- Ümit Atabek: Mass media and advertising:  
the Turkish version  
of a problematic relationship  
СМИ и реклама: к специфике  
взаимоотношений (на примере Турции)
- Greg Simons: Information security and the media  
in contemporary society  
Информационная безопасность  
и СМИ в современном обществе
- Alexey Bykov: Journalism as a control lever  
in the information society  
Журналистика как инструмент  
управления в информационном  
обществе

**Gülseren Sendur Atabek**  
**Seçil Deren van het Hof:**

**Corporate social responsibility:  
a critical appraisal via Turkish  
examples**  
Корпоративная социальная  
ответственность и ее реализация  
в Турции

**1 p.m. – 2. p.m.**  
**Lunch time/Обед**

**2 p.m. – 5 p.m.**

## **II panel**

**Veysel Batmaz:** **Discourse analysis as an empirical  
tool**  
Дискурсивный анализ и возможности  
его использования на практике

**Elena Grunt:** **Information culture: supporting  
information security**  
Информационная безопасность  
в условиях функционирования  
информационной культуры

**Dmitry Strovsky:** **Information globalization: regarding  
its evolution**  
Информационная глобализация:  
особенности существования и развития

**Yu. Chemyakin:** **Corporate mass media: its definition  
and values in the information  
society**  
Корпоративные СМИ: к вопросу  
об определении и их ценностях  
в информационном обществе

Marina Myasnikova: Media education as an information security factor: the Ural experience

Медиа-образование как фактор  
упрочения информационной  
безопасности: Уральский опыт

Rafail Iskhakov: Experience of the Oriental periodicals and preparation modern journalist (About methodologies of the education)

Evgeniya Gorina: The image of the hero: mass media behavior in terms of political instability and «armistice»

Имидж героя: поведение СМИ  
в условиях политической  
нестабильности и «перемирия»

Elina Bulatova: A question of information society in advertising discourse

Картина информационного общества  
на примере рекламного дискурса

Irina Volchkova: Information interpretation and responsibility: in search of harmony

Информационная интерпретация  
и ответственность:  
в поисках гармонии

Comments

Комментарии



# Preface

When almost two years ago one of us for the first time has met professor Umit Atabek and his colleagues at Akdeniz University (Antalya, Turkey), who could ever think that this encounter may bear such far-reaching perspectives. That memorable meeting in the long run resulted in the organization of the international conference hosted by the Akdeniz University and supported by Istanbul University in which some scholars from the Journalism Faculty of the Ural State University were also present. There has been an extremely interesting and lively discussion on the state of mass communication in the non-Western world. We were leaving Turkey already having in our minds a strong intention to hold a similar conference in Ekaterinburg and thereby to promote it, since it has now been established as a tradition. We are very happy that our primary idea has come true, and our Turkish colleagues from the both universities have finally reached the Urals. The event itself seems to be exclusive for our faculty which has never before received the colleagues from this neighboring country. However, our project continues to grow geographically, and now includes a colleague from Uppsala University, Sweden.

The present conference, as it is declared in its title, is devoted to researching the issues of information security of society in the context of mass media development. Information security is one of the most complicated topics of all those affecting Russian society and professional journalists. For the last few years Russia has witnessed an extremely big number of different political and social conflicts which were touching individuals creating a feeling of uncertainty and even danger for their everyday life. Mass media both in the national and regional/local levels were actively involved in these situations while displaying time to time non-professionalism in their coverage. Due to many controversial circumstances the information sphere has become much politicized, progressing already not as a journalistic product but as a tool of propaganda. In these terms it is very uneasy to raise an issue of information correctness which is undermined by threats from outside the media sphere. In addition, instead of being a reliable source of information for the people some media have displayed a lack of ethics. There are many reasons why the word objectivity is becoming less and

less “consumed” by the media in Russia. A similar problem occurs in the Turkish media following long discussions with Turkish scholars taking place last year. Objectivity is also thoroughly threatened by globalization which penetrates now to the very bottom of the media industry and subordinates priorities of many editorial staff. Besides, consumerism which is vividly expressed in advertising is one more deficiency for the media to be able to maintain their independent positions. Despite a certain understanding of editors and journalists that there are factors that cannot but affect everyday media existence it is hard to admit that the audience seems not to be suffering from these occurrences. Since the information balance jeopardizes to be permanently breached, the public looks as being insecure in front of the interests of media moguls. Thereby information security leaves much to be desired in media as a whole.

As scholars, we clearly understand that the conference is unlikely to resolve the above situation especially if it looks extremely contradictory. However, the proclaimed agenda for discussion is of great importance for academics because it helps to exchange views and accumulate ideas which, in turn, lead to elaboration of certain attitudes towards them. It seems to be necessary for improving standards of teaching by laying down in minds of our students diverse and even provoked imaginations regarding the media state in our societies.

Media never act independently from everyday realities. In each country they are greatly linked, formally or informally, to the state system and communities. Therefore it goes without saying that comprehension of national mentalities indisputably creates one more background for our present discussion.

This book consists of 16 different articles specially written by the discussants prior to this conference. In total they give an extremely good chance to understand not only scientific priorities of the participants but also to perceive, to some extent, at least a psychological aura of the debate which is not least significant for academic disputes

**Boris N. Lozovsky,**

Dean of the Journalism Faculty of Ural State University;

**Dmitry L. Strovsky,**

Head of the Department of International Journalism.

# **INFORMATION AGGRESSION: DEFINITION AND ITS STRUCTURE**

**Prof. Margarita Kovaleva,  
Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** information security, media aggression, information politics, journalistic activity.

## **Introduction**

The problem of providing informational security for society is one of the most pivotal following numerous acts of aggression from the media. The structure of the term of information politics is investigated on the level of the state information policy and professional culture of a journalist. The author, roughly at least, has scrutinized the notion of editorial policy and suggested recommendations affiliated with professional journalistic activity. Following it, the definition of informational aggression as threatening to individual security and that of the society is to be analyzed. In author's opinion, this problem looks complex and can be traced down in two levels: within the context of the state information politics and as resulted in journalistic practice. A possibility to oppose informational aggression thereby is being provided by the relationship between the powers and the media aiming to reach national security.

## **Information aggression: against what?**

Information wars, information violence, information bombardment... These combinations of words are frequently used in the content of contemporary media. Following the intensive information exchange caused by the modern development of technical opportunities in search and transmission of information itself, media researchers and journalists come across the problem of providing information security and of seeking the means of defense from communication aggression. The world community as early as 2000 approved Okinawa's Concept of Information Security. In September 2000 Russian President Vladimir Putin signed the National Doctrine of Information Security of Russian

Federation. Unfortunately, in both documents only elaboration of political strategies of securing the information space was introduced. At the same time, the above definitions were submitted too generally. Meanwhile, military terms mentioned above indisputably confirm the existence of new phenomenon in modern media: information aggression.

The latter definition is purely clarified as a sort of an attack (Yuridicheskii..., 1953: 12). Undermining of social welfare and moral health provoked by the media become nowadays one of the greatest challenges for the Globe. Therefore it is worth clarifying the essence of information aggression.

What level is pivotal for evaluating this aggression? What opportunities are to be switched on for the media? What is the standpoint enabling to fix an aggressive media behavior?

The acts of information aggression are displayed in two levels: general or socio-political, on the one hand, and personal on the other hand. The first case applies to perfection or non-perfection of the state/legal regulation and the legislative frameworks of the mass media. The elaboration of state information policy is the core of this issue which is defined by legal enactment of organizational incentives from the state and the principles of media activity being shared by society and the journalistic community. It is worth noting that the state information policy is still absent in contemporary Russia.

### **Misbalance of information as an agenda**

This situation is not followed by the vicious will of the people involved in state management including Russian Parliament, governmental institutions and the Presidency. This is likely to be an obvious confirmation of new political and economic relations being undermined by present changes. The other reason of this uncertainty is a historical tradition of Russian society. Also, mentality of the latter as being paternalist, plays an important role. All this is imprinted in the relationship of the national media and the Russian state. In fact, of the three centuries, at least, one and a half of them clearly showed the dependence of the media on the power. These genetics occur in modern

media space. As has been noted, 75-80 per cent of print media are supported by the authorities and most journalists (70 per cent) see their mission in the society in terms as being critical to the powers (Naumenko, 2005).

Thus, there exists a certain misbalance of the relationship between the powers, journalism and society which provokes abusive controls and restrictions against the press freedom. The results of many sociological investigations indicate that the destabilization of Russian society is crowned with the bad quality of information and distribution of the latter. Some scholars claim that there is a lack of the state ideology in today's Russia which could have become a leading cultural and information factor of strengthening the country (Nemirovsky & Nevirko, 2006: 319). In addition, the influence of market relations also seems to be pivotal. A journalist who traditionally had been a teacher and helper for the audience, became a vendor of his commodity — information. However, fortune always destroys non-profitable priorities. Hence, sensation and scandal have become more evident.

It is worth raising a question about protection from information violence and social aggression of the media against society. It should be taken into account in the process of elaboration of the state information policy which is absent in Russia but a necessity of which is being perceived more vividly.

This problem is complex but an initial priority has to be done on researching information itself as well as on improving quality of latter. Both political scientists and media experts are similar in evaluating mass media as the actor and the means of political influence. However, there very rarely arises a question about the volume, character and quality of information circulating in the society. It is no secret that news programs of national TV-channels look like twins in both the structure and content. They can be watched but honestly there is no big difference between almost all of them. Society does not get full and trustworthy information, and a journalist, in fact, uses very often the most accessible source of information: the Internet.

In turn, information aggression on specific (or personal) level occurs in the content of the editorial politics and in activity of each journalist who is dependent on this politics. The editorial politics is the process of searching for an "own" audience due to preferable means of informing.

In most cases the media aggression is based on the concept under which good news is not news at all. It is leading to the comprehension of news as destroying a habitual way of life which is being reached through the pictures of abuses, fires, attacks, eruptions, floods, etc. This is a productive background for mistrust, fear and anxiety of people. Negative social information is a good nutritive for manipulative methods of management. In addition, media, especially television, use one more aggressive tool: bombardment with the same fact which is being repeated for a day or two in each news bloc. Most people remember the acts of violence and crowds of Albanian refugees shown on television prior to the attacks on the former Yugoslavia.

### **Conclusion**

Thus, the protection of information security of the state, society and individual is possible through coordination of politicians and journalists. Such rates as the volume and quality of information have to be taken into account while elaborating the doctrine of national security.

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# **INFORMATION SECURITY AND THE MEDIA IN CONTEMPORARY SOCIETY<sup>1</sup>**

**Dr. Greg Simons**  
**University of Uppsala, Sweden**

**Key words:** informational control, protection of individual, modern society, communication function.

## **Introduction**

The gist of this paper can be captured, to an extent, in the well-known saying «the pen is mightier than the sword.» It can be summed up, that there is a fear that perception, which is derived from the mass media affects the beliefs and actions of citizens. This can be either positive or negative, from the point of view of the incumbent political power. Thus mass media are at the same time both an opportunity and threat. In this regard the information security can be interpreted as being the securitization of perception.

It is the goal of this paper to understand, on a basic level as time and space permit, the process of information security and the media in modern society. This is an important aspect of many governments around the world, regardless of whether they are more or less democratic or authoritarian in nature or their geographical location. In many cases, there is an increasing trend in the use of restrictive laws concerning media and speech, and a rapidly growing communication function and capacity of government. To be aware, and perhaps even predict events, it is essential to understand the conditions and motivations for controlling the flow of information in society.

In order to achieve this understanding, this work has been structured in a way that is designed to make clear, in a logical sequence, the process of gaining control over those channels of communication. Firstly, looking at the subject of what basic assumptions need to be taken from

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<sup>1</sup> The author gratefully acknowledges the support of the Swedish Institute in making participation at the conference and the writing of the paper possible.

the outset, which will develop later into the need to attain information security. Then the next subject is outlining the basic motivations that are used to drive the process and to justify to the public why control needs to be exercised. Next, comes the strategies that are employed as a means of influencing the minds and actions of the citizenry.

### **Basic Underlying Assumptions**

When one speaks of information security there is a number of implications. (See Buzan et al, 1998 for a detailed account of securitisation) Firstly, that information is some kind of threat and must be secured. Flowing on from this basic underlying assumption that something is a threat, then there is the other side of the equation, i.e. that there is something being threatened. Therefore two immediate questions need to be asked before proceeding any further, in order to get a clear understanding and perspective. How is information a threat? Another question that stems from this first question is to whom is information a threat? These questions need to be answered first before following the next logical step in the process. How to best protect those individuals and groups that are threatened by information?

It should be noted that the institution that is responsible for defining and declaring a security threat is most often the state. By the state I am referring to the work of a country's parliament in terms of debate, declarations and laws passed. However, in determining what is to be judged a threat and what is not, is somewhat subjective and bound to the interests of the ruling power, rather than to the national interest or in the interest of the people. Although a perceived threat is often framed as being something that will harm the national interest or peoples' interest, rather than as harming the interests of the incumbent political power as this is more easily 'sold' to the public.

### **Motivations in Mass Communication**

From the arguments presented in the preceding section, one can therefore deduce that a security threat is something that can potentially threaten the continued existence of a political entity (for the emphasis



in this work is on political rather than social or economic entities), and in particular a political entity that at the time holds power. Where does “information security” fit into the process then? Its importance lies in the tenant that perception is more important than reality. (Louw, 2001: 1-35) That is, people (the public) tend to react upon what they perceive as being reality rather than what may actually be the real case.

Mass media help to shape people opinions and values through bringing what may often be events that are remote from a vast majority of a country’s population. As such, the mass media sphere is a hotly contested arena that transcends a number of planes – the political, the social, the educational and business. It is a mechanism that can unite these diverse sites and bring a common meaning. This becomes of even greater importance during times of political and economic instability.

There can be said to be, in a general sense, an association between security and stability. What is meant by this is that with security comes stability. The stability being sought and desired can be measured in both economic and political terms. For an entity seeks to be in a stable environment, which it is best adapted to, in order to maximize its chances of survival as changes to the environment entail adaptation. And when an entity is unable to adapt to a changing environment it can be substituted by another entity that is more suited and able to make the necessary modifications. Although at times it is necessary to embark on a course of change in order to survive.

Whether to ensure a stable and non-changing environment or to embark upon a course of change, an incumbent political entity needs to be able to be in command of the situation and to guide it. This is more often than not requiring that entity to be the master of symbolism and perception, in order to first give meaning and understanding to an event as it unfolds and then to guide (or at least predict) the reaction of the public to those events. The penalty for failing to master this difficult and unpredictable process is very well illustrated by the events of Mikhail Gorbachev’s Perestroika reforms in the late 1980s. Gorbachev lost control of both the symbolism and the perception of the process, the result being not only the collapse of a political system, but an entire country too.

In connection with these different aspects, which have been described above, an overarching motivation for controlling the information sphere is that a belief exists that in doing so there is greater chance of regime survivability and that political, social and economic goals are more readily realizable. These assumptions being derived from the view that by being able to determine the reality of an event by massaging public perception there is a greater possibility of being able to predict and determine events and reactions. Thereby having greater control over shaping the process through exercising a degree of informational control.

### **Communication Strategies and the Effects**

Before considering the various communication strategies that are intended to influence the thoughts and actions of the intended publics, one must first consider controlling the media assets that are available. This can be done through a variety of means, but can be broadly categorized as being either political or economic control. A starting point is knowing who controls the mass media, whether ownership and control is pluralistic or narrow. A distinction should be made between ownership and control, as ownership of a media outlet does not automatically bestow control as much as control does not necessarily have to entail ownership.

It should be understood that control of the mass media is not only an externally imposed mechanism, such as restrictive laws, arrests or the physical (or economic) intimidation of journalists, but it can be an internally self-regulated mechanism of socialization and routine. The internal mechanisms can be much more effective without the attention that comes about with the dramatic public events that can occur when attempting to impose an external control mechanism. Although knowledge of mass media practices and preferences can be equally effective, which does not require force or coercion in order to get a message into the media. This is especially relevant for knowing what interests are relevant for media, so that they will by their own decision publish a story. (McNair, 2004: 49-51)

Ownership bestows certain privileges insofar as it enables a message to be circulated through the media outlet in question with less resistance.

The mechanism of control is internalized and a certain unspoken understanding is present. If however, control needs to be established there are a number of ways for a state actor to achieve this objective. There is the direct method of using various authorities (such as fire, health, tax or law enforcement bodies) to “sanction” a “problematic” media outlet for certain named transgressions. Another avenue is buying a media outlet or in some way attain a controlling stake. A third possible way is to generate public support for restricting the activities of the media industry.

For instance, a poll may be conducted upon what the public think of the level of pornography and violence in the mass media. After a number of leading questions establish that there is public discontent, the focus moves to what should be done to rectify the situation. Thus the idea of censorship is proposed, initially linked by perception to the issues stated above. When a poll indicates that people would approve of the idea of the use of censorship to control of the pornographic and violent content in the media, there is an apparent call for the use of censorship to control the mass media. This is on the surface a legitimate call for the authorities to take action. In this regard, sensationalisation and infotainment which sustain a media outlet's ratings and hence profits can also be their Achilles Heel.

Success depends on a large part of knowing and understanding one's audience. They should know their hopes and fears and be able to incorporate these elements into the message, in order to make it not only meaningful, but powerful too. It is a matter of being able to be the master of symbolism. This is certainly no easy task as it requires knowledge of what symbol is currently potent and what is not, and symbolism is a fleeting thing that is neither constant over time nor space. (Lippmann, 1997: 125-150) Therefore it requires that the right note be struck at precisely the right time. Otherwise there is no effect or perhaps an effect contrary to that which is desired is produced. Symbolism can appear in a number of guises, seen and unseen – a flag, a colour (such as those used in the Colour Revolutions), language, national or ethnic icons (an eagle for instance), religion and specific rhetoric. These are the means used to capture the moment, and to exercise and determine the nature of the information flow. In general

these are subjects and objects that are deeply and profoundly felt, and not something that is reasoned logically. By inducing an emotional state, actions are determined by the heart and heat of the moment, rather than thought out coolly and calmly.

## **Summary**

Informational security, in this sense, is about being able to control the flow of the channels of information. This is so to ensure either to 1) maintain one's political position, 2) to contest political power or 3) as a means of changing or consolidating a society. Information is the means to achieve these goals, and the mass media are the delivery system of the means. As such the information sphere occupy a tantalizing position of being a tool of potential influence.

The state is the entity that is best able to determine and frame, initially at least, the issue of information security as well as who or what is the source of the threat and why. This can be done through the passing of laws and regulations as well as the use of state media assets to deliver the message. A general belief exists that it is necessary to gain control of media outlets in order to deliver a uniform message. However, this mode of thinking and action has been rendered somewhat redundant by the globalization of mass media, and the speed with which news travels (both in terms of speed and geographical reach).

Therefore when there is an attempt to deliver a uniform message in the contemporary context, there will almost certainly be someone who will attempt to expose the weaknesses of the argument presented or offer a counter message at least. An important aspect in modern political communication is the ability to understand how mass media and journalism in general works. After this realization, then it is possible to employ a strategy which is not only familiar to the mass media, but acceptable to them too. Thus instead of employ strategies that involve force and conflict, it is possible to employ a strategy that involves cooperation. In this regard, it is important to know what kind of news (and the style it should be presented in) is of interest to a particular media outlet, and who its customer base consists of.

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# **CORPORATE SOCIAL RESPONSIBILITY: A CRITICAL APPRAISAL VIA TURKISH EXAMPLES**

**Dr. Gülseren Sendur Atabek**

**Dr. Seçil Deren van het Hof**

**Faculty of Communication, Akdeniz University**

**Key words:** ethic, business regulation, neo-liberal world, shareholders, employers, state legislature, social activity.

Business ethics and the relation between business and society are discussed since ancient times. However, the discussion and concern on business ethics assumed a different character after the fall of the Berlin Wall which accelerated globalization and with the accompanying growth in the trans- and/or multi national corporations (Hopkins, 2003: 2). The turnovers of some transnationals are far larger than the gross domestic product (GDP) of many nation states. Consequently, contributing to the development of the countries that they operate and profit became partly under the responsibility of these transnational corporations. This expectation of responsibility has been transferred on to local business as well becoming part of business ethics especially after 2000.

The expanding applications and discourse of CSR bring forth a need of a proper definition of the concept. There are various definitions of the corporate social responsibility (CSR). Carroll, in his article on these definitions tries to categorize them as much as possible. The most respectable definition which also evolves together with the evolution of CSR practices is provided by The World Business Council. WBC defines CSR as ‘the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life’ (World Business Council, 2005). The Australia Standards Association in developing a standard for corporate social responsibility defines CSR as ‘a mechanism to voluntarily integrate social and environmental concerns into their operations and their interactions with their stakeholders, which are over and above the entities’ legal responsibilities (cited in Banerjee, 2008: 60). However, from a purely managerial perspective, CSR is also defined as “a product or service strategy designed to sustain a competitive advantage (McWilliams and Siegel, 2001; Martin, 2002).

A broader definition states that CSR is concerned with treating stakeholders of the firm ethically or in a responsible manner. Stakeholders refer to the seven major actors/factors within which a firm trades and operates. These are a firm's (1) shareholders and potential investors; (2) managers; (3) employees; (4) customers; (5) business partners and contractors or suppliers; (6) the natural environment; (7) communities within which they operate, including national governments (Hopkins, 2003: 3).

Although it is assumed that the relation between the firm and at least some of these actors (namely employees, customers, business partners, and natural environment) are regulated by law, it is unfortunately not the case. On the contrary, these actors are usually ignored, and the problems caused by the business are not regulated by governments. The legislative authority of states for regulating corporate behavior has also been removed in the neo-liberal trend of the globalization process, leaving almost no 'official' requirement on the firms to serve the public interest except in the economic realm. This deregulation tendency of neo-liberalism is actually a political and ideological preference in favor of the firms. The assumption that the trades and operation of the firms brings wealth and development to the society in general is the main explanation of this preference.

This situation brings up the question that is responsible for the social costs. Social costs emerge as a result of firms' actions of profit maximization in a capitalist system. Social costs used to be covered by the welfare/social state, and partly by philanthropy. While corporations create wealth for the people that owned them, social and environmental costs that the society will bear continued to be passed off as externalities. For example, if a transnational mining firm wants to search for gold mines in a forest area, the social cost that will be created by the destruction of the environment and the release of toxic materials as mercury is externalized on the grounds that the gold mine will also contribute to the wealth of the nation state.

In most cases the legitimacy of a business is thus related to its economic efficiency. However, this does not always legitimize the firm in the eyes of its stakeholders. The unethical business behavior has its cost for the firm as bad reputation. Here, CSR appears as a public relations practice, which aims at fair allocation of social costs. The decline of the

welfare state and the shrinking role of it in the social and economic sphere due to the rise of neo-liberal policies since 1980s created a large field of action for private firms in covering social costs.

It is claimed that CSR is a form of business ethics as the firm's response to pressures from social activists, socially oriented consumers, shareholders and employees. Although business ethics in the form of CSR rarely directly affects firm's attractiveness, its sales and its access to capital, it still feels forced to be sensitive to its environment. Because, CSR brings a firm two related advantages: 1) positive reputation, 2) sustainable profits. In US, the report annually published by Council on Economic Priorities titled "Shopping for a better world" lists socially responsible companies and 78 % of the buyers of the guide switched to these brands as a result of using it (Hopkins, 2003: 5). Similar concerns play a role at investors' choice at the stock market. CSR is associated with the emerging terminology of corporate citizenship and sustainable development. Corporate citizenship, social responsibility and sustainability are used to create an emancipatory rhetoric based on a "new" understanding of business ethics (Vogel, 2006; Hirschland, 2006). In this, the corporation takes over the compensation of at least some of the social cost produced during its business.

An interesting example is by ING Bank where the total amount of carbon dioxide released to the atmosphere during the business trips by plane in a year is calculated and tropical forest in Malaysia sufficient to absorb this amount of carbon dioxide is rehabilitated by firm.

Nevertheless, this "business ethics" perspective does not go without criticism. From a critical perspective CSR is seen as an ideological movement that is intended to legitimize the power of large corporations (Mitchell, 1989) designed to consolidate the power of large corporations. According to this perspective, CSR and its associated terminology create a particular form of corporate rationality that despite its emancipatory intent serves to marginalize large groups of people. Firms operate in the market to make a profit. The function of business is to produce sustained high profits. CSR is feasible so long as it is consistent with profit maximization and survival in the market system. Thus, CSR was born in the USA as a defense tactic of the industrial system against external attacks. The question is then whether



the business response to social demands and involvement in the allocation of social costs is due to business ethics or sustainable profits in a neo-liberal environment. The answer is perhaps given by Milton Friedman who wrote in 1962 that the only ethics for business is to compete without fraud in a free economic environment.

From this perspective, we now analyze the development of CSR in USA. In 18th century North America, a corporation needed a special act of state legislature to exist legally. Exercising corporate powers without a grant of legislative authority was considered to be an 'invasion of sovereign prerogative'. Hence a corporation was considered 'a creature of the state'. However, by the end of the 19th century, restrictions around incorporation had all but disappeared. The legal revolution that gave birth to the modern corporation essentially removed all major restrictions around corporate activity and rules of incorporation. Since the legislative authority of states for regulating corporate behavior was removed, there was now no 'official' requirement to serve the public interest except in the economic realm. Since the corporation was defined as an entity that could enjoy property rights, maximization of economic return for shareholders became the primary incentive for firms. Any reference to 'social good' was at best symbolic and derivative in that the economic function provided the social good. Since then, the wealth creating ability of modern corporations has been unquestionable, although their social and environmental effects (and indeed some economic effects) were just as unquestionably damaging. 170 years after corporations freed themselves of state charters; consumer and environmental activists of the 1960s and 1970s were campaigning for a system of federal charters to 'reign in the power of large corporations' (Banerjee, 2008: 58). Thus, social responsibility, an integral part of a corporation's identity and existence in the 1800s became an activity ascribed to the corporation, a strategic choice influenced by market and competitive factors.

Now we turn to the Turkish CSR experience and its applications in Turkey. We try to pose the same question – business ethics or defense tactic in neoliberal world — to Turkish examples of CSR practice. CSR discourse entered Turkey together with transnational corporations after the liberalization policies of 1980's. There existed a culture of

corporate philanthropy that emerged as building of schools, hospitals and similar social service buildings. However, this philanthropic perspective assumed a more public relations perspective as the activities turned into sponsorship or CSR.

In order to reveal the basic characteristics of Turkish CSR experience we carried out an empirical study. This analytical study is based on the data set provided by the web site <http://www.kurumsalsosyal.com> ; it includes 112 CSR campaigns realized in 2007. Several aspects of the campaigns, the corporate, partners and targeted groups are coded and results were analyzed.

### **Findings:**

The results show that only one corporate (DHL) had carried out four CSR in 2007. It is found that five corporates had three campaigns; six corporates two campaigns and the remaining 81 corporates one campaign only. This shows that majority of corporates realizes only one CSR campaign a year.

**Table 1: Numbers of CSR Campaigns in 2007**

	Frequency
DHL	4
Tetra Pak	3
Lafarge Turkey	3
Koç Group	3
Efes Pilsen	3
Aygaz	3

We also looked at the origin of the corporate. For this, we assumed that a corporate is to be labeled as Turkish if it is owned and/or established mostly by Turkish capital and its headquarters are in Turkey; otherwise the corporate is labeled as foreign. 49 of 112 (43,8 %) CSR campaigns in 2007 were realized by foreign origin corporates.

**Table 2: Origins of Corporates**

	Percent
Turkish	56,3
Foreign	43,8

With reference to the partner in the CSR campaign we found that Ministry of Education (39 %) is the number one partner in the campaigns due to the fact that most of the campaigns are on education.

**Table 3: Partnet Institutions/NGOs**

	Frequency
Ministry of Education	19
Ministry of Health	2
Istanbul University	2

As for the partner NGOs, it is found that Çağdaş Yaşamı Destekleme Derneği ÇYDD [Association for Supporting Contemporary Life] is among the most popular NGO. It is also found that all campaigns with these NGOs are based on education. We may also argue the reason why ÇYDD is the most popular NGO for the campaigns although this NGO's field of interest is not purely on education. It is most probably the popular political rallies (Cumhuriyet Mitingleri) in 2007 to be considered as one of the reasons. Corporates supposedly wished to transfer the reputation of ÇYDD which was one of the major organizations of these rallies.

**Table 4: Partner NGOs**

	Frequency
Çağdaş Yaşamı Destekleme Derneği	11
Türkiye Eğitim Gönüllüleri Vakfı	5
Doğal Hayatı Koruma Derneği	3
Toplum Gönüllüleri Vakfı	3

As the literature suggests that corporate's field of operations and campaign's field of interest should not be similar for the most appropriate results. Therefore we also investigated the 112 campaign if campaign field of interest similar to the corporate's field of operation. The results are shown in Table 5. It is found that more than 45 % of the campaign's field of interest is similar to the field of operation of the corporate. This is obviously in contradictory with business ethics, but it seems to be a commonplace practice in Turkish CSR experience.

**Table 5: Is Campaign Field of Interest similar to the Corporate's Field of Operation?**

	Frequency	Percent
No	61	54,5
Yes	51	45,5

We also examined the duration of the campaigns. Table 6 shows the results. Most of the campaigns are long — term. It is found that most campaigns (57,1 %) are long term campaigns, and this is more or less in compliance with the proposals in the literature. It is also found that foreign origin corporates are more likely to realize long term campaigns than Turkish ones. 63,3 % of the campaigns of foreign corporates are long term campaigns while 52,4 % of the campaigns of Turkish corporates are long term.

**Table 6: The Duration of Campaign**

	Frequency	Percent
Short Term( 1-6 month)	26	23,2
Medium Term( 6-12 month)	22	19,6
Long Term (more than one year)	64	57,1

As for the diversity of offered services, it is found that most of the campaigns (51,8 %) offer only one service while 29,5 % offers two and 18,8 % offer three services in the campaign. The distribution of the main fields of interest of campaigns is given in Table 7. It is found that 46,4 % of campaigns are on education. Therefore education seems to be a sacred field of interest for most CSR campaigns.

**Table7: Main Field of Interest of the Campaign**

	Frequency	Percent
Basic Education	27	24,1
Other Education	25	22,3
Health	15	13,4
Social	13	11,6
Environment	12	10,7
Traffic	8	7,1
Sport	5	4,5
Culture/Art	4	3,6
History/Restoration	3	2,7

The distribution of the geographical scope of the campaigns is given in Table 8. It is found that very few campaigns are carried out in particular regions. It is also found that Istanbul is the most common city for campaigns (Table 9). It is clear that campaigns are mostly carried in the big cities of industry and in the cities where factories of corporates are located.

**Table 8: The Geographic Scope of Campaign**

	Percent
City/Province	46,8
Region	1,8
Whole Country	51,4
Total	100,0

**Table 9: Cities**

	Frequency
Istanbul	27
Izmir	5
Kocaeli	4
Bursa	3

Tables 10 and 11 show that most of the campaigns (92,8 %) are not gender oriented and targeted at children (47,7 %) and youth (21,6 %). The age parameter is obviously related with the abundance of education campaigns.

**Table 10: Gender**

	Percent
Women Only	6,3
Men Only	,9
Men-Women Together	92,8

**Table 11: Age of the Target Group**

	Percent
Children	47,7
Youth	21,6
Middle Aged	1,8
Elderly	,9
Mixed	27,9
Total	100,0

## **Discussion:**

The findings revealed that Turkish CSR experience is not exceptionally different in terms of the corporate behavior. Corporates in Turkey carried out CSR campaigns to gain positive reputation and sustainable profitability. To this end they usually preferred campaigns based on education and health and targeted mostly to children and young people. These preferences are clear indicators of rational choice of corporates seeking public support. Quite a number of corporates in Turkey carried out CSR campaigns on the field which are in similar to their field of operation, although this is not an ethically approved practice. Most of the campaigns were carried out in Istanbul and other large industry cities where the production facilities of corporates are located. Finally, they do not seem to hesitate to choose partner NGOs such as ÇYDD which might not be politically suitable for their corporate capitalism ideology in general. However corporates' pursuit for reputation and sustainability forces them to be practically rational rather than being ideologically short sighted, therefore they must calculate their preferences accordingly although this may be contradictory to their long lasting major role of reproduction of capitalistic ideology.

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# **JOURNALISM AS A CONTROL LEVER IN THE INFORMATION SOCIETY**

**Dr. Alexey Bykov**

**Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** public opinion, propaganda, journalism, global penetration, world in transition, journalistic practice, propaganda war, information technologies.

## **Introduction**

Coordination and regulation of public life is a part of the role of journalism, and they permit expedient change and transformation of the world. Journalism should be considered a special type of information since understanding of journalistic practice is part and parcel of humanity studies

## **Theoretical frameworks**

Similar interpretations are presented in reference books and encyclopedias:

“Journalism is a kind of public work on gathering, processing and periodic distribution of the actual information through channels of a mass communication (press, radio, TV, cinema etc.)” (Bolshaya Sovetskaya Entsiklopedia, 1972: 252)

The same explanation is given by many modern researchers in Russia. It is possible to find comparable definitions in monographs by Prohorov, Korkonosenko and Kovaleva. To summarise the argument:

It is activity on the creation of mass media, for development and realization of an information policy. Organizing work here is included: creation of collectives, setting up of mass connections and relations with other social institutes, realization of scientific researches, participation in professional training, etc. Journalism is an area of public and creative activity” (Prohorov, 2001: 12; Korkonosenko, 2001: 3; Kovaleva, 2001: 13).

The majority of other approaches – functional, historical, communication and others – also explain the phenomenon with similar «activity» positions.



Any activity has a definite purpose. Journalism carries out information functions (information, entertainment, communication, coordination). This was always the original regulating and optimizing factor of the social system. Informing people allows society to build life, using knowledge of environmental circumstances. In this case it is possible to talk about management connecting regulation and optimization. And these connections are hidden in the term. Management, as it was mentioned, means

an element, function of the organized systems of a various nature – biological, social, technical – providing preservation of their certain structure, as well as maintenance the activity and realization of their programs and the purposes. Social management is an influence on a society with the purpose of it ordering, preservation of qualitative specificity, perfection and development (Sovetskiy Entsiklopedicheskiy Slovar, 1989: 1400).

Available historical experience allows that

“the information activity by journalism has the particular function to manage consciousness and behavior of an audience (Prohorov, 1979: 13).

This thesis was the topic when journalism was considered from the ideological point of view a tool «agitation, organization and propaganda». Now, when the information epoch is coming, the problem of the influence of information on an audience becomes more serious special urgency. It is obvious that the journalistic activity is being carried out with the greater efficiency.

Different countries have had success using journalism activity and media propaganda to achieve their political aims. One of the most famous is the Cuban-American information resistance. President Kennedy greatly expanded the anti-Castro broadcasts to influence public opinion. Radio America broadcast directly to Cuba from Swan Island and later from the Florida Keys. This task was also authorised to some other stations, some sponsored by the CIA. During the 1962

Cuban missile crisis, several commercials broadcast on U.S. radio stations that could be heard in Cuba carried anti-Castro propaganda. The Voice of America (VOA), the U.S. government's overseas broadcast service, greatly expanded its programming to Cuba.

Additionally, as part of a CIA plot to overthrow the Castro regime (known as Operation Mongoose) after the missile crisis, the Kennedy administration placed television transmitters in military aircraft in order to beam taped television messages onto the island from just outside Cuban airspace (Nichols, 1996: 81).

Cuba was not passive in the propaganda war. The Castro government launched Radio Havana Cuba, which broadcast propaganda, first throughout the region and later throughout the world. Utilizing more than twenty radio frequencies (mostly shortwave) to broadcast more than four hundred hours weekly in eight languages, Radio Havana quickly became one of the largest international propaganda operations in the world (Nichols, 1996: 81).

The Clinton administration reversed longstanding U.S. policy that admitted Cuban rafters under the Cuban Refugee Adjustment Act. The U.S. Coast Guard was ordered to interdict the Cuban boatpeople at sea and detain them at a U.S. naval base without any rights for eventual admission into the United States. Next, under pressure from hard-line Cuban exiles and conservative legislators, President Clinton announced further tightening of the embargo, including a ban on Cuban Americans sending cash to their families on the island, even greater restrictions on travel to Cuba by U.S. citizens, and "more aggressive" use of Radio and TV Martí. The broadcasting measures included adding four frequencies to Radio Martí's shortwave transmissions, doubling the power of its AM transmissions, increasing TV Martí's hours of programming, and threatening to use military aircraft as airborne transmitters to avoid Cuban jamming of the stations. More important, Radio and TV Martí markedly changed their message to potential Cuban rafters, announcing that

"the waters are unsafe. Hurricane season has started. People are dying. American policy has changed. There is no welcome for survivors. Refugees are detained. Don't go" (Nichols, 1996: 96).

Many researchers have mentioned that the world of informatics and the globalized media will expand to compete with the state in some areas of its authority, especially in the realm of the media, its effect on public opinion and its technological potential for global penetration and corresponding weakening of national sovereignty. National sovereignty could be eroded by information penetration via satellite television and the Internet. Countries with traditional systems of sovereignty are no longer capable of blocking their national spaces against the invasion of culture and information. This used to be achieved by traditional sovereign measures, such as blocking geographical borders against foreign invention. Some experts have described this global phenomenon as “soft power” which can achieve its colonial objectives on a large scale without provoking classical revolutionary reactions by the countries whose national dignity is abused, sovereignty violated and territories occupied (Al-Olayan, 2006: 573). .

## **Conclusion**

The information society, which has come after agrarian and industrial epochs, is characterized by domination of knowledge and information. It has a high level of information technologies. The globalization of information influences people's lives and employment throughout the world. In the new information order, public activity is carry from habitual sphere into virtual space. People reach their purpose in policy, economy, culture, etc., by using information resources. It gives special importance to all types of information activity, including journalism. The journalist's ability to influence society is greatly expanded; administrative opportunities are more obvious. Characteristics of journalistic activity in an information society undergo significant changes:

- Journalism and different types of information activity – advertising and PR – intensively mix with each other, and many of their attributes are unified;
- Concentration of the media allows a limited group of corporations to dominate journalistic activity and information streams in the

global world, allowing effective use of information resources to achieve political, economic and other goals ("communication can also be understood as one of the forms through which power can be exercised" (Flew, 2007: 5));

- Development of information technologies opens new technical opportunities for immediate distribution of information throughout the planet; using new multimedia channels increases the speed and efficiency of journalism's influence on the mass audience.

These are only a few of the factors that strengthen the ruling character of journalism in an information society.

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# **INFORMATION CULTURE: SUPPORTING INFORMATION SECURITY**

**Prof. Elena Grunt**

**Faculty of Political Science and Sociology, Ural State University**

**Key words:** information society, information culture, computer culture, security, psychological priorities.

## **Introduction**

All across the world, nations often label themselves as being and parcel of the Information society or the Knowledge society .They note proudly how well informed their people are. These claims seem to have highly-evolved informing aptitudes which, to some extent, are assisted by the media.

The utopian information society is said to have been the core of that community where every individual learned to satisfy his/her personal needs by means of acquiring and using information efficiently. This challenge included satisfaction of life with many different ways. It is worth noting, at least, some of them:

- seeking and maintainance of employment
- social cohesion, including family, social group, religious pursuits, and so forth
- quality of life improvement
- geographic or regional cohesion
- lifelong education and training
- research skills
- understanding and utilizing of mass media
- health, safety and security needs
- participation in democratic processes
- protections of intellectual property and prospering in the electronic marketplace, etc. (CF Report, 1997: 3).

Following this idea, UNESCO defines the information society as being distributed for all people. According to its principles, the information provides a framework for international cooperation and international and regional partnerships. In turn, this is the basis for the development of common strategies and for building a just and free information society and for shrinking the gap between the information rich and the information poor (UNESCO, 2002).

The XXI century makes it reasonable to expect that social progress may thoroughly lessen, if not fully resolve, political, economic, and socio-cultural imbalances among countries, and thus to reduce a huge and increasing gap between the countries that are highly developed and those who are not. In this regard information has a key role to play.

The educational issue is of special attention for different countries tending to generating new knowledge. A closely related set of initiatives seems to be shaped in development and testing electronic information services that are provided by the different government sectors.

Therefore, it is worth researching a new information-cultural environment. It means that both public and private institutions must guarantee the availability and accessibility of public information. It also means that citizens can use and fully exploit information resources for their personal benefits. It means that any person and any group living in the contemporary world have to develop high information culture. But what do we mean by this culture?

Theoretical approaches to the concept of information culture

The concept of information culture is resulted not only in the advent of new digital technologies but also in a new mindset. In sociology one can see many definitions of information culture. Some authors mean that this notion is similar to the computer or electronic culture (Chamelink, 1985; Anisimova, 2002). It is unlikely to agree with them, because the notion of information culture is broader than that of the computer culture. The term computer culture expresses an ability of a person or a social group to have an access to Internet resources. There is no doubt, however, that the computer culture is a part of the information culture as a whole. In turn, Suchanov says that information culture means a tool suitable for using and keeping information as well as a technology of working with information (Sukhanov, 1988: 71).

Information culture can be interpreted as convergence of principles and real mechanisms which provide for a person or a group of people the ability to positively interact in the information process. It means that people can communicate with each other, inform others and, consequently, be informed. The notion of information culture applies to a greater number of both personal and collective social activities not to mention the activities of informal social groups. Today the level of information culture for a person or a group turns out to be a main factor of information security. This type of security means protection of information and information systems from unauthorized access, use, disclosure, disruption, modification or destruction. The terms information security, computer security, and information security are frequently intertwined. These fields are closely related to each other and share common goals of protecting the confidentiality, integrity and availability of information.

The new information culture is being understood as a dynamic process enabling

- to improve intellectual faculties;
- to design and develop many and diverse communication forms and formats that are necessary to generate knowledge;
- to improve understanding but not only communication;
- to communicate to each other thanks to ethical norms of communication;
- to inform not only about professional but social activity;
- to take into consideration psychological priorities of people
- to socialize information, in terms of extending it throughout all spheres of human activity.

The ultimate goal of modern information culture is to increase the amount of sharable knowledge and experience, while at the same time helping to solve specific individual and social problems.

Presently, the information culture of a person as well of different socio-professional groups can be researched in sociology.

## **Information culture of trade-unions leaders: an empirical study**

The research project was to review existing information culture of trade-union leaders. The survey material consisted of 500 interviews.

The aim of this project was to figure out the information culture of these leaders in the Middle Urals. The project concerned the internal information flow, namely: how the information culture and knowledge create successful performance. Simultaneously, the value of information and flexibility of the information culture were examined. To what extent the information profile looks satisfactorily in different information processes and if information is regarded well — these items were also examined.

The information culture was evaluated through interviews with trade-union leaders. They were interviewed in order to specify the opportunities of the information flow and to clarify quality of information along with norms and values of the information culture.

Trade-unionists are the group of well oriented professionals. It is of great interest for the study because this people are intensively reliant on information, and those working there come forward as good specialists and even experts.

As has been mentioned above, there are many definitions of the information culture in modern Russian sociology as well as in its Western analogue. To be more certain, Russian sociology consists of a few studies dealing with the issue of the information culture adherent to different socio-professional groups. It is worth saying that sometimes respondents speak to each other in different and therefore not well understandable languages since they can't properly determine the subject of their talk. Meanwhile, the development of modern society initiates economic, political, cultural problems which are needed to be solved. A low level of information culture among specialists and socioprofessional groups does not allow resolving these problems. It's therefore necessary to develop and improve the information culture of different specialists.

What do trade-unionists mean by the information culture? The survey showed that the respondents defined it very differently. The



information culture is regarded as both knowledge and formal information which are pivotal for solving professional tasks (37,6 per cent). The information culture was also defined as a part of professional culture of a specialist (54,2 per cent respondents). The information culture was considered as a personal capacity to use and understand information (30,0 per cent). Briefly, many respondents didn't see the main point of this notion. Information is a flow of messages, while knowledge is organised from this flow, and at the same time it is anchors individual perceptions. Knowledge was understood a spiral of interaction between tacit and explicit backgrounds.

The person is the most important part in the process of getting knowledge, it's an interaction between experience and rationality. The knowledge is needed for a person in order to interact with each other. It means that a person has to inherit knowledge as well as to use it in practice. 11,2 per cent respondents mentioned that the information culture means maintenance and usage of information. Therefore, it can be concluded that most respondents as well as the representatives of other socio-professional groups (teachers, state servants) don't understand the meaning of the information culture. (Hertsog, 1995; Vasilenko & Rybakova, 2004: 78).

The data of our survey shows that the level of the information culture of most trade-union leaders is not very high. 74,1 per cent of respondents admitted the lack of information which seems to have been detrimental for their successful performing.

There are some factors affecting this process. All of them can be submitted as both subjective and objective. The main objective factors were seen as the deficit of time for searching information ("a lot of work" – 58,8 per cent), the deficit of information resources (17,0 per cent), the absence of information channels such as Internet ( 53,0 per cent). Subjective factors deal with a lack of skills of orientations of respondents in the information flow (13, 9 per cent), insufficient skills of respondents in searching and systematization of information (13,9 per cent). Such factors as deficit of time in modern Russia can be seen both objectively and subjectively. On the one hand, trade-unionists have to work intensively and even to spend their leisure-time for their daily

working priorities. It undoubtedly lessens time for searching and cultivating information, and this situation doesn't stimulates them in searching information and getting knowledge for improvement of their information culture. On the other hand, many of the leaders can't use their leisure-time in a rational way, and therefore they prefer to use such informational channels as TV, radio and magazines. Sometimes this information can't be representative and it's difficult to use it in professional activity.

One of the main parts of the information culture is an ability of respondents to suggest modern methods of searching, gathering, cultivating and using information. The survey showed that 53,3 per cent of respondents have a low level of these skills, and 7,9% of them don't possess them at all. Meanwhile, 44,8 % respondents spend for receiving information 20,0 per cent of their working-time, and 37,8 per cent are fond of treating with information during 50, per cent of their working-time.

Our research showed that 63,2 per cent of respondents use traditional information technologies in order to get new information. These are printed or written texts. Meanwhile, 25,8 per cent of them mentioned that Internet and e-mail can be considered as the best information source suitable for getting and transmitting information. It can be seen as an innovated component of information culture of trade-unionists in contemporary Russia.

The information culture of trade-unionists cannot be analysed without the communicative component (culture of communication). The communication culture is one of the main means enabling successful professional activity. Our survey showed that trade-unions bosses use traditional methods of communication. Only a minority of them prefer personal networks, training, e-mail, Internet-conferences, reports and internet-papers and so on.

## **Conclusion**

The information culture is necessary for every individual or a social group to achieve success in their lives. That is why there is no doubt in the proverb claiming that that one who possesses information owns the world. Therefore, one of the main factors of the information security is

the information culture of a person or a group. The latter constantly interact and communicate with each other, according to the norms and values of information culture. The ultimate goal for improvement of individual's information culture can be achieved as an individual's desire to acquire knowledge and information is going to be cultivated by institutions of information society. The information culture and the problems of information security must be the subject of studying in contemporary sociology. Sociologists have to conduct theoretical and empirical researches in this field of study.

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# DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AS AN EMPIRICAL TOOL

**Prof. Veysel Batmaz**  
**Istanbul University, Turkey**

**Key words:** discourse, post-modernity, narrative analysis, message system analysis, motivations, critical thought.

## **Introduction**

It is widely accepted that giving a single definition of “discourse analysis” as a research method is very controversial. Most of the literature does not accept discourse analysis as a research “method.” Although it is one of the misleading assumptions in media analysis studies, it is commonly agreed that discourse analysis is rather an approach or an “ideological” attitude towards an uttered word (written or verbal) (Atabek, 2007: 152-153)<sup>1</sup>.

In this article, it is aimed at to show to what extent discourse analysis is an empirical tool to be utilized in textual media analyses in helping to understand the actual, concrete, materialistic world through mediated communication.

## **Discourse and discourse analysis**

Discourse has many default meanings used in daily conversations, one of which is “debate” or “argument”<sup>2</sup>. In this sense, the analysis of a discourse is the subject of an assertion or argument imbedded in a

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<sup>1</sup> In this article, Atabek wrongly points out that discourse analysis, as an ideological approach, is far from being a method in order to examine a materialist understanding of the concrete world. Even post-modernist discourse analysis has materialistic base. In this article, my assertion is that all kinds of content analyses, which discourse analysis is one of them, have related to empirical world and thus, one way or the other use positivistic approach. For the sake of understandability, I termed “empirical discourse analysis” to make clarification of how I differ from the traditional, post-modernist discourse analysis.

<sup>2</sup> In Latin, *discursus* means “running to and from”. Other daily usage meanings of discourse in all languages are: Speech, public address, oration, allocution, sermon and harangue.

conversation uttered in a debate. The likely outcome of this definition is conventional acceptance of a meaning limited by the boundaries of the speaker or a style of speech (writing). From the point of such a definition, in a discourse, once the sentences (i.e. coded semantic units) are understood by both parties, then there is nothing to analyze but only agreement or disagreement, or liking or disliking of an assertion is needed to be spoken.

Debate, argument or assertion under the title of “discourse,” are all different ways of communication. For example, in this sense, a sentence like this is a discourse: “Plato asserted that any problem could be solved by rational and logical discourse.” This sentence as a discourse can only be accepted as true or false because it is a part of a debate. In order to continue the conversation, one must start to assert new discourses on the meaning of concepts which Plato used in this sentence such as “rational” or “logical” and what type of relations these concepts have to do with the process of a solution of a problem. In short, discourse as debate cannot be analyzed within the boundaries of language and social structure. The subject of debate (discourse) is to be understood.

Nevertheless there is another definition of discourse. This definition has been used in number of theories on society such as modernism, structuralism and feminism; that investigate the relations between social structure, spoken language and the communicator. In this sense, not the subject but the content of a spoken (written) word as it is uttered by a communicator in a context is important. In this sense, the notion of ‘discourse’ is the structure of a conversation in a societal formation. Whether it is accepted or not, true or untrue, liked or disliked, it has relevant importance for the communicator and audience. It builds a larger world than the very meaning and styles of the uttered word. The position of the person, the subject of a communication and the quality of audience are all intermingled in the outcome of such a “discourse.” The chosen word has the utmost function in such a discourse. If one uses the word “terrorist” and another use “freedom fighter” for the same armed group, only this simple choice of daily words tells us the background of these two communicators and relations of them to the structure of society in which this discourse is taken place (context).

### **Discourse and Ideology**

Discourse is compiled of spoken, written and body language and different multimodalities of communication (<http://en.wikipedia.org/>)

wiki/Discourse#cite\_ref-0). Different words can have the same meaning, or “discourse sign.” On the other hand, the same word may mean differently in different contexts, usages, persons and time. This paradoxical essence of “discourse” hints at that there is a deep arbitrariness of analysis and this is why for many students of media, discourse analysis is anti-materialist, anti-positivist or ideological. In fact, one of the renowned post-modernist philosophers of discourse, namely Michael Foucault uses the word “discourse” interchangeably with “ideology.” (Hammersly, (1997) in Atabek and Atabek, 2007: 153)

Is “discourse” analysis an “ideology” analyses?

For post-modernists, anti-positivists or idealists the answer is yes. Discourse, whether it is a news story or a speech, public address, oration, allocution, sermon or harangue, it has an ideology embedded in it. Since ideology belongs to the world of ideas (Platon), the materialist base of an idea is hard to examine. The logical end of this argument is when a discourse analyses is undertaken, we have no empirical foundation.

This is where the contenders of positivism have the weakest loop: As Karl Marx points out that:

“The production of ideas, of conceptions, of consciousness, is at first directly interwoven with the material activity and the material intercourse of men, the language of real life. Conceiving, thinking, the mental intercourse of men, appear at this stage as the direct efflux of their material behaviour. The same applies to mental production as expressed in the language of politics, laws, morality, religion, metaphysics, etc., of a people. Men are the producers of their conceptions, ideas, etc. — real, active men, as they are conditioned by a definite development of their productive forces and of the intercourse corresponding to these, up to its furthest forms. Consciousness can never be anything else than conscious existence, and the existence of men is their actual life-process. If in all ideology men and their circumstances appear upside-down as in a camera obscura, this phenomenon arises just as much from their historical life-process as the inversion of objects on the retina does from their physical life-process.”

The essence of all ideas and ideologies have deep rooted in the material world. Thus, discourse as an ideology can be investigated empirically.

A definition of discourse as ideology is an analyzable act of communication, and consequently provides us a tool for deciphering in depth meanings, structures or positions of a social agent or a social formation.

Indeed, discourse analysis can be characterized as a method of approaching and thinking about a social issue. It is both a qualitative and/or a quantitative research method, a way of criticizing the basic assumptions of society and its empirical relations to individuals.

So, discourse analysis provide a tangible answer to questions based on scientific-positivistic research. Needless to say, it enables profound examination to the ontological and epistemological assertions behind a news story, a project, a statement, or a system of classification.

“In other words, discourse analysis enables media students to reveal the hidden motivations behind a text or behind the choice of a particular method of research to interpret that text. For example, the contribution of the postmodern discourse analysis is the application of critical thought to social situations and the unveiling of hidden (or not so hidden) politics within the socially dominant as well as all other discourses (interpretations of the world, belief systems, etc.).” (<http://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~palmquis/courses/discourse.htm#TOP#TOP>)<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> Here, a brief but thorough paragraph from this link is appropriate in order to understand the history of discourse analysis: “Though critical thinking about and analysis of situations/texts is as ancient as mankind or philosophy itself, and no method or theory as such, Discourse Analysis is generally perceived as the product of the postmodern period. The reason for this is that while other periods or philosophies are generally characterized by a belief-system or meaningful interpretation of the world, postmodern theories do not provide a particular view of the world, other than that there is no one true view or interpretation of the world. In other words, the postmodern period is

## **Types of Post-modernist Discourse Analysis**

There are multifaceted “kinds” of theories of post-modernist discourse analysis. Michel Foucault’s Genealogy and social criticism and analysis of the uses of discourse to exercise power (such as renowned analysis of how «knowledge» is created in our societies and with what purpose or effect); Jacques Derrida’s “deconstruction”; Fredric Jameson’s “Marxist” analysis of post-modernism; Julia Kristeva’s or Hélène Cixous’ feminist interpretations of current social issues. Under the post-modernist era and area of analyses, discourse (or critical) analysis is always seen a matter of interpretation. (<http://www.ischool.utexas.edu/~palmquis/courses/discourse.htm#TOP#TOP> )

### **Empirical Discourse Analysis**

Discourse analysis can be applied to any text, that is, to any problem or situation relevant to society if the context, communicator and structural underpinnings of society are known. In this endeavor, discourse is, by definition, public address within an ideological world. In fact, all post-

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distinguished from other periods (Renaissance, Enlightenment, Modernism, etc.) in the belief that there is no meaning, that the world is inherently fragmented and heterogeneous, and that any sense making system or belief is mere subjective interpretation — and an interpretation that is conditioned by its social surrounding and the dominant discourse of its time. Postmodern theories, therefore, offer numerous readings aiming at «deconstructing» concepts, belief-systems, or generally held social values and assumptions. Some of the most commonly used theories are those of Jacques Derrida (who coined the term «deconstruction»), Michel Foucault, Julia Kristeva, Jean-François Lyotard, and Fredric Jameson (this extremely brief listing of a few critical thinkers is neither comprehensive nor reflecting a value judgment; these are merely some of the most common names encountered when studying postmodern theories)... Critical thinking, however, is older than postmodern thought, as the following quote by John Dewey illustrates. Dewey defined the nature of reflective thought as «active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusion to which it tends» (Dewey, J. *Experience and Education*. New York: Macmillan, 1933. Page 9). When critically evaluating a research project or text, one should, therefore, not limit oneself to postmodern theories.”



modernist philosophers also maintains this assumption as a basis for all kinds of communication as addressed to the masses to produce a consent of public by a public authority. Foucault's "'political and economic' power equals to knowledge and institutions" formula depends on such an assumption.

Here I will categorize some different types of empirical discourse analysis.

According to Kimberly A. Neuendorf, (2002: 4) message analysis and content analysis should not be confused with discourse analysis. She lists very useful areas of message analysis similar to content analysis and discourse analysis which can all be used in textual media analyses:

- (1) Rhetorical analysis is one in which both words (spoken words) and images (body languages) are important. Mainly, researcher is interested in the manifest characteristics of a text or image or both. Metaphors, choices, message's constructions are artifacts of unit of analysis. The emphasis is on how the message is said, rather than what it is said. Its ancestor is Aristotle (Rhetoric).
- (2) Narrative analysis is a technique concentrated on attention and focal points on characters and their complications within a narrated text. It is widely known as composition construction. For example, Propp's (1968 in Neuendorf, 2002) exhaustive analysis of Russian fairy tales which examines of common character roles and linear sequences of verbal elements, transfigurations and disguise of characters and commonness of lessons learned from them (socialization factor).
- (3) Structural or Semiotic analysis focuses on deeper meanings of messages. Latent meanings, signifying process through signs, codes and inner operations are examined. The researcher must be a member of the examined context. It is widely known as semiotics. Film as a message medium is one of the most investigated artifacts of semiotics.

- (4) Interpretative analysis is coding and decoding process of message systems. Being a competent observer, the researcher takes units of a message sample to see cumulative formulations of the same sub-units. Although it seems it has somehow to do with subjective interpretations, it is a very empirical and precise method of gathering similar themes and depicting common issues of message systems of media outlets, i.e. television programs, books, films and political speeches.
- (5) Conversation analysis is a technical way of understanding on how a dialog takes place between two sources of communication. Sociology, psychology and communication sciences provides procedures of this type of message analysis. It is described as rigorously empirical method to develop effective communication from the analysis of ordinary speakers use words and sentences in a conversations. Their skills and styles can be used to understand as how an effective or non-effective ways of persuasion can be established. Advertisers use this approach for copy-writing.
- (6) Critical analysis is a branch of cultural studies. This post-modernist approach to contemporary societies. Presentations of minorities and other social groups, gender relations in media products, power depictions of social strata and status roles of leading characters in television (or in films) are the units of this analysis. Mainly it is done for criticizing the media world for the under-presented issues and groups.
- (7) Normative analysis is examining a social or media issue to establish a norm or a lesson to youngsters and other groups. Especially it is undertaken in bettering the school curriculums. Nowadays it is highly related to media literacy studies. For example, Legg (1996, in Neuendorf, 2002) proposes that commercial films are an important venue for the exploration of religion in a culture. So films are normatively investigated from this proposition and

concludes that religious teachers should not use only religious films to educate the students but commercial films also can be used to cultivate religious beliefs.

- (8) **Message System Analysis** is a very special tool developed by the Annenberg School for Communication (George Gerbner and et.al.) to provide large data-base to understand the power relations in media how to cultivate social and political ideology. It is the technique of Cultivation Theory of George Gerbner. The general name of the this method is called Cultural Indicators Project continues for almost 40 years (1968—2006) in the USA. Television is coded second by second and character by character in order to understand the TV-World which is assumed depicted very different and exaggerated from the real world. Violence and under-representations of demographic groups in real world provides a scary-world syndrome in heavy viewers of TV, in order to establish a hegemonic governance of capitalistic societies.<sup>4</sup>

### **Issues of Reliability and Validity**

These techniques of message analysis of media texts (verbal or visual) are all empirical discourse analysis. They are related to the discourse of media and social groups to establish an effect to the whole audiences. Contrary to the post-modernist discourse analyses, there is hard data provided through empirical discourse analysis so that the reliability and the validity of one's research findings depends on statistical theory.

In traditional discourse analysis, it is asserted that “even the best constructed arguments are subject to their own deconstructive reading and counter-interpretations. The validity of critical analysis is, therefore, dependent on the quality of the rhetoric.” Opposite to this statement, in empirical discourse analysis, scientific techniques can be utilized vigorously and precisely.

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<sup>4</sup> This list from 1-7 is taken from Neuendorf (2002). For message system Analysis See: George Gerbner and Larry Gross, (1976).

## **Conclusion**

Even if “discourse” is widely used interchangeably with “ideology” in idealist/post-modernist theories, empirical grounds of unit of analysis and materialistic notion of the real world plays an important dimension of the empirical discourse analysis. One can argue that overall categorization of all kinds of media analysis as discourse analysis is a misleading approach; one can also argue that, discourse in daily language is very similar to what mass communication media is doing with its content and position. It is a one-sided dialog, just a little bit different than ordinary monolog. Even in multi-media applications and Internet, as the traditional mass communication is being converted into face to face (screen to screen) communication, discourse is becoming more encompassing notion of speech, dialog and communication. Debates and position of argumentation are becoming more “discourse” as mediated speech is turning into mass produced jargons and persuasive public address. Advertisement, public opinion, political communication are all becoming pure “discourse” in a web of multi-media corporations and conglomerates of a global capitalistic society. So, in order to better understand this epoch of development of societal change, one must use the traditional discourse analysis (post-modernist ideology analysis or critical analysis) approach coupled with hard data and empirical findings in order to shed profound light on the intermingled and complex humanity issues in the age of global modernity (Dirlik, 1997, 1994, 2006, 2001, 2005). This is what I call, empirical discourse analysis.

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# **INFORMATION GLOBALIZATION: REGARDING ITS EVOLUTION**

**Prof. Dmitry Strovsky**  
**Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** information stereotypes, manipulation, national values, global information village, “theory of dependence”, imperialism.

## **Introduction**

The main purpose of this article is to substantiate the idea about the process of informational globalization affecting media as being not politically neutral but based on the ideological priorities of some countries. This assumption puts on the agenda the issue of the essence of globalization as a social occurrence and its possibilities to affect the mass audience.

Modern technologies exercise a significant influence on distribution of information and the media priorities. Internet intrusion as a new source of communication in human society as well as different programs existing within the Internet sphere (such as Skype and ISQ) enable to speak about shaping new methods and forms of information activity, a promptitude of which is much faster than that of the traditional media.

This situation does specify the essence of informational society which was shaped by the early 1970s (Bell, 1973). By the information society the author implies the social and political relations of a development, which entirely depends on the production, handling and application of information and on the operation of the technological system providing distribution of this information (see also McQuail, 2007: 558). Due to the computer techniques society is able to speed up the decision making process of many daily issues.

At the same time mankind feels unlikely to consume the amount of information being elaborated and unambiguously suffers from its abundance. In this regard, pivotal questions can be put on the agenda. Some of them are focused on the advancement of technical opportunities in the field of mass media. This environment looks menacing for international security since the “transportation” of information from more developed to less prosperous countries seems to

be looking as detrimental for the latter. It is worth guessing that the present situation seems to be insecure for the development of mankind while creating the threat for its existence.

### **Historical background**

Technologies in the communication process are profoundly affected by globalization which gives birth to new symbols for the evaluation of modern realities. A new informational landscape, in turn, is being shaped for generating stereotypes of consciousness or models of behavior. Consequently, the world community comes across such a cultural phenomenon as a clipping thinking which inevitably changes the needs of the audience and makes the entire environment more simplistic for society.

It would be wrong to consider globalization of communication activity as a new-born phenomenon of the contemporary social history. Globalization from the very beginning was determined by the eagerness of media moguls for the intellectual seizure of new territories and reinforcement of political and economic influence. In fact, this process was primarily initiated by the Industrial revolution in Europe in the late XVIII and the early XIX centuries. The French socialist Claude Henri de Saint Simon and the English philosopher Herbert Spencer claimed that the Industrial society being imprinted by this revolution symbolized a specific type of the unified system parts of which are indispensably linked to each other. Within the Industrial society communications are regarded as its core element cementing different elements of human being (Thussu, 2006: 40).

The media concentration which started in Europe and the US in the mid-XIX century showed obvious changes in the field of information. The latter was gradually becoming a specific kind of production affecting the other goods within the system of economics. Moreover, the informational product has become a certain reflection of the whole market activity (Mattelart & Mattelart, 1998: 8-10). In this regard it is worth saying about prerequisites of media globalization because the media themselves by then were not grouped in holdings.

A real globalization in the information sphere became obvious in the first half of XX century when media ownership (mostly in the US and

Britain) stepped across the national borders and became internationally developed. The then media evolution has demonstrated new omnipotent tendencies, the most significant of which became a comprehensive and pragmatic expansion of certain cultural values into different national backgrounds. Research investigations spotted, for instance, the manipulation trends of the media globalization leading to subordination of some nations from others. It was American sociologists Lippmann and Lasswell who due to their empirical data collected from the mass audience paid attention to the ability of the media to skillfully change the world view of individuals without any pressure on their minds and feelings. For example, Lasswell pondering over this process used the term of enlightenment as an antipode of direct instruction which, in his view, did not change the nature of information intrusion itself (Lasswell, 1960).

After World War II one more approach was brought into existence. It treated the process of mass communication globalization as the only one able to maintain cultural and ethical values of mankind. The evolution of this approach was predetermined by the cold war and the separation of the Globe in two ominous parts: socialism “restraining” universal development of information and “democracy” oriented on full-scale informing of the audience on all pivotal issues. The latter approach was regarded as more civilized in West due to the media market laid down by that time which was opposite to the system of the planned economy (Thussu, 2006: 18-23). Internationalization of mass communications was treated within the idea of human liberties which, in turn, had been denied by the Marxist concept of media functioning and regulation. The concept of the free flow of information was thereby affiliated with the process of media internationalization as an unalienable part of globalization itself.

### **Theory of dependence as the left-wing idea**

Information activity is unlikely to be understood without taking into account ideological priorities of society. Therefore, the above concept seems to have been looking not less politicized when compared with the one that dominated in Eastern Europe. However, the idea of ideological superiority under globalization was promoted mostly by left-liberal or Marxist scholars (Innis, Hoskins, Mirus, Golding, Murdoch, Harris and



some others). Supporters of the Marxist approach have always assumed that ideology was pivotal weaponry for the developed countries to conquer the entire Globe. According to the “theory of dependence” shared by Baran, Gunder Frank and Amin, transnational corporations developing their businesses mostly in the Northern part of the world undoubtedly affect other countries in terms of promoting their own “rules of game” in market relations and, correspondingly, due to strengthening of their political and economic dominance. Following the above “theory of dependence”, mass media play the first fiddle in restoring this dominance while imposing certain political priorities on some nations and ignoring the specifics of national cultures.

In the meantime, it is worth admitting that these expressions seem to be too rigid. If world media affect some nations, then this occurs in more disguised manner that has been scrutinized by Baran and others. The media influence looks like a very peculiar mechanism of “attacking the mass audience” under which direct intrusion is substituted by manipulation. The latter in terms of globalization is leading to shaping illusionary reality in the media (Ermakov, 1995; Mel’nik, 1996). The manipulation effects in the 1990s have been also thoroughly investigated by many western scholars: Curran & Gurevitch (1991), Boyd-Barrett & Newbold (1995) and others. Most researchers while figuring out the contradictory nature of globalization were and are unanimous in evaluating it as the domination of some values over others in the contemporary contradictory world.

However, most scholars in the West estimate globalization as a neutral occurrence having nothing in common with ideology. In the early 1960s McLuhan initiated the term of the global information village. He also wrote about the “information society” changing geographical and territorial frameworks customary for an individual. The “information society”, in his view, seems to be looking as undisputable welfare for international community. Following McLuhan’s opinion, globalization is a certain background for the development of democracy since it makes equal opportunities of different countries and nations (McLuhan, 1964).

The McLuhan’s concept became impetuously evolved worldwide and found adherents such as, for example D. Lerner and W. Schramm. Half

a century ago Lerner published the book titled *The Passing of Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East* (1958) where on the basis of his research in Turkey, Lebanon, Egypt and some other countries investigated the degree to which people in the Middle East and around were exposed to national and international mass media. He wrote that

[The] Western model of modernization exhibits certain components and sequences whose relevance is global. Everywhere, for example, increasing urbanization has tended to raise literacy; rising literacy has tended to increase media exposure; increasing media exposure has “gone with” wide economic participation... and political participation (Lerner, 1958: 46)

The second world-known researcher, Schramm, in his book *Mass media and national development; the role of information in the developing countries* (1964) claimed that there exists the correlation between ideas proclaimed by the media and human behavior. The main task of the media, Schramm noted, is to facilitate to social transformation, otherwise economic innovations can not be well developed (Schramm, 1964: 27).

Following Lerner, Schramm wrote that the Western media can stimulate people's initiative in developing countries. Namely these countries become “responsible” for social transformation while maintaining democratic values and stimulating “free flow of information”. The liberal media, Schramm noted exist so that people could have avoided fatalism and fear of change. Since the Western media are destined to promote opportunities for welfare, they encourage individuals to “come desire a better life then they have and to be willing to work for it” (Ibid, 1964: 130). Due to the specific frameworks for democracy in the East, Schramm considered the information flow as being unable to develop in a mutually beneficial way.

In the next years this idea kept developing. For instance, Galtung (1971) assumed that the Globe becomes more “harmonious” due to the move of information from the center to periphery. Despite the specific title of his research, *A structural Theory of Imperialism*, the last word

was not regarded by him negatively. Admitting the influence of technologically advanced countries on the other part of the world, Galtung, nonetheless, treated this process as natural in terms of “unequal development” of territories (Galtung, 1971: 83-93).

Another scholar, Toffler (1980), called information globalization as the “third wave” of civic evolution. In his opinion, this wave has changed the agricultural and industrial époques in the history of mankind but occurs as a principally new turnover of social and inter-individual communications. Toffler regarded the contemporary development of civilization as a period of the unique interconnectedness of nations taking different places of social and political development. To his mind, this became true due to the media carrying “intellectual plurality”.

Ten years later a similar idea was expressed by Newman (1991). However, neither Toffler, nor Newman paid attention (no matter if it was specific or not) that authentic information pluralism is possible only if information comes up from different sides and thereby penetrates into the core of the society.

It serves as one more confirmation that globalization from the very beginning was based on pretty rigid political priorities and was inevitable from ideology serving as a supportive background of politics.

### **Culture vs. violence: what is a priority?**

Ideological dominance has always been less significant in a purely industrial sphere with its universal frameworks on quality and other standards. However, in the field of mass media globalization was defined by reinforcing some standards over the others. As early as the 1960s this was noted by American sociologist Schiller from the University of California. In his research *Mass communication and American Empire* he claimed that any information society is based, first of all, on a high technological level. The latter enabled the US in the period of the Cold War to define specific standards of life in different regions. This was mainly brought into existence by advertising as well as by different forms of propaganda (Schiller, 1969: 92-100).

In those conditions the Soviet Union as the main rival of the US looked compatible in the military sphere but could not step forward with similar information support. Perhaps, therefore Schiller totally ignored

the idea of information changing between the two political systems opposed to each other.

It would probably be incorrect to evaluate this situation as cultural imperialism (following the definitions by Schiller, Wells and some others being put on agenda in the 1960-70s). Western countries strengthening their values were doing much for the increase of cultural level of local communities in Africa, Asia and some other regions. New schools were opened as well as universities and theatres, etc. The development of the information sphere and the appearance of new printing and electronic media have become the key point of the human process aimed at enlarging cultural standards of the local population. In addition, the definition of imperialism seems to be explained too vaguely so far. Stevenson fairly claimed that the notion itself cannot be regarded from the previous, colonial, positions and that the essence of imperialism dramatically changed for the last few years. Modern realities seem to be going away from monosyllabic and one-sided understanding of realities (Stevenson, 1988: 36-40).

At the same time, it would be totally incorrect to throw off global interests of the developed countries, their eagerness by peaceful means to pump up their influence in the world. The media industry is a lucid illustration of this tendency while tending to get invested in less developed countries.

Summarizing the above theoretical concepts within the media towards globalization, it is worth talking about two global trends.

The first defines the media existence in the era of globalization pretty pessimistically. The adherents of this concept such as Frankfurt School (Adorno, Marcuse) and following them the left-wing scholars estimate information globalization as a manipulative intrusion. The "pessimists" were and are confident that the development of information serves to interests of a limited number of individuals neglecting most people and tending to subordinate them on the basis of rigid distribution of information. The "pessimists" see this approach as inhuman facilitating to create, first of all, of the virtual reality, having too little with reality.

Unlike the first concept, the second one evaluates the media much more positively. Those who support it regard information globalization as the best way of resolving all political and economic issues. The same idea

is supported by Castells. In three volumes of his research "Information Age: Economy, Society and Culture" (2004) Castells ponders on the nature of information capitalism permanently enlarging the degree of its influence due to constant information changes between territories. Following this, technically backward countries are being switched to the advanced information society which, in turn, makes possible to hasten political activity of population. Taking into account serious technological advantages of the information époque, it is worth assuming that social confrontation in the so-called backward societies can be provoked by intrusion of new culture. Castells seems to be avoiding this argument and other "positivists" which confirms their eagerness to evaluate information globalization mainly from the position of technocratic determinism rather than from humanitarian priorities.

## **Conclusion**

In modern conditions of dynamic development of information technologies disagreements between two main concepts will likely to be increasing. On the one hand, the ongoing discussion seems to be helpful to humanity science, on the other, it makes hard for the society itself to express its clear attitude to information globalization. It is obvious, however, that the existing discrepancies in evaluation of this process are not built on the neutral understanding of reality but followed by ideology and often by manipulation. This picture is not safe for society while creating difficulties on the way of its evolution.

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# **THE OPENNESS OF THE REGIONAL INFORMATION SPACE: FOLLOWING THE EXAMPLE OF THE BELGOROD REGION**

**Oleg Shevtsov**

**Public Relations Department, Belgorod State University**

**Keywords:** mass media, regional information space, information openness, media market.

The Post-Soviet period in the development of regional mass media was marked with a considerable democratization of information space. Democratization includes the development of publicity institute, facilitated access to information, overcoming of the informational isolationism that earlier prevented from getting and distributing media information of international character including the foreign sources. The Soviet period was characterized by a centralized “vertical” scheme of international information processing and distribution, when central news agencies and mass media had an actual monopoly on forming the dataflow that came from the centre to the regions. And the international information from abroad was selected and worked on by the central structures. As the result the general unified data set was broadcasted to regional and local mass media [Korochensky, 2002: 98].

Today this model is added by “horizontal” schemes of informational impact, i.e. both mass media and consumers of international information in regions of Russia often receive and work on it without information intermediaries presented by central structures. Nowadays media organizations can send special correspondents and find own correspondents abroad independently without coordination with the head, they use directly different sources of international information – both Russian and foreign.

When decision-making in problems of international cooperation has been considerably displaced from the centre to the regions, the independence of regional subjects of international contacts has essentially increased. The modified role of the Russian regions in international economic, scientific and technical, cultural and humanitarian cooperation requires



appropriate media provision that can favor the successful decision of problems of this cooperation. The increasing involvement of the regions into the global competitive sphere (economic, informational, cultural) requires reviewing the stereotyped concept of regional and local media role and tasks in international informing.

This can be fully regarded to the mass media of the Belgorod region, which after the USSR dissolution has changed from a remote into a boundary region and now develops direct international contacts in different spheres. At present the information space of the Belgorod region is open not only to the media information that comes from the capital and other Russian regions but also to the dataflow from the near abroad and foreign countries.

The information space of the Belgorod region is a constituent part of all-Russian information space. There are Belgorod, capital and interregional mass media (functioning from the territory of other Russian regions), foreign mass media (mainly Ukrainian) in the regional information space. They do not only supplement but also compete with one another in readership, advertisement profits, political and commercial influence on citizens.

The situation on the Belgorod media market allows characterizing the information space of the Belgorod region as an open one. This can be proved by the following statements:

1. There is a great deal of regional and local printed additions on the Belgorod periodicals market which are directed at various categories of people and social groups and express different (often diametrically opposed) points of view. At the same time a wide range of capital, interregional and foreign periodicals are represented in the region. This fact proves the openness of the regional periodicals market.
2. The population of the region can watch a lot of television channels, including foreign ones. The same situation can be observed in the sphere of commercial FM-radio stations.
3. Availability of information on the Internet.

The key characteristic feature of the modern information social sphere — both all-Russian and regional — is the information space openness. This concept has not got the scientific definition so far. Generally we use the concept information openness. By this concept the representatives of the authority mean that the government bodies are open to the citizens' receiving the information about their activity. Journalistic and human rights organizations make the possibility for journalists to freely receive and collect information from the state and private structures.

Under the concept of the information space openness we understand the following:

Information space openness is the state of a free going of socially significant information about the world and the events taking place in it, which can be characterized by:

- Multi-dimension within the geographically marked territory;
- Availability of horizontal and vertical dataflow;
- Competitive relations among the participants of the media market;
- Complexity of structuring the sources of information.

Free access of the audience to different media sources of information.

Prohorov remarks that “the information space is not the territory where cooperation of information data is carried out... it is the space that has not only geographical but also audience characteristics” (Prokhorov, 2001: 81).

It is worth considering that the information space openness has not only geographical and audience characteristics but also commercial and cultural aspects. In the process of competition the Voronezh mass media (and in some cases – foreign, mainly Ukrainian) are able to replace Belgorod regional and local mass media from the Belgorod media market, to compete with it in cultural and moral spheres. It is important not only to have different mass media in the regional information space but also to provide people's access to them. All these factors determine the specific character of the regional information space and the level of its openness.

“Unlike the Soviet Union, Russia is an open country that is not going to be shut from anyone” — remarked the Russian Minister for Foreign Affairs of RF, Sergei Lavrov (Lavrov, 2007: 5). The real information space openness of the Russian region, under the conditions of its involvement to the world-wide globalization processes, influences significantly on the state and character of people’s awareness. Under the conditions of globalization only the total and complete audience informing about international processes and the participation of regional subjects in them will allow to guarantee a high level of Belgorod citizens’ readiness for active participation in the processes of international cooperation in economy, science and culture; their mobilization to solve the problems of this cooperation. This means that the competitiveness of this very region and the regional mass media in modern interconnected and interdependent world will also be provided.

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# **THE IMAGE OF THE HERO: MASS MEDIA BEHAVIOR IN TERMS OF POLITICAL INSTABILITY AND “ARMISTICE”**

**Dr. Evgeniya Gorina**  
**Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** information, mass media, info security, “the United Russia”, tranquility, political leaders.

## **Introduction**

Today information is considered to be an essential power and weapon of journalists. Mass media as the owner of information may alter the arrangement of political forces, form mass opinion, manipulate audience, and create certain moods in society (Balynskaya & Mironov, 2007). Mass media are so highly positioned in society that journalists are considered to be the determinants of Russia's fate. Perhaps, it is said much too pompous, however the subject of this research is not only to investigate information influence of the media, but to attempt understand to what extent it is going to be safe for a person to feel an impact of this information. Especially now when new definitions appear: info security, media wars, information trauma, information therapy (Pronin & Pronina, 2008).

One of the topical terms born in the last time is info security. In the context of mass media info security is regarded with several sides. Firstly, it means safety of journalists themselves. It concerns protection of journalists being manipulated by government agencies because the primary deal for the former is getting of information. Secondly, Info security means that people are guaranteed to receive proper information. Thirdly, info security is understood in a broader context as the state of safety of national interests in the information sphere (Lozovsky, 2004). Finally, info security is the notion connected with security of society. In this particular case, info security is regarded as the limitation of aggressive texts in mass media and, consequently, the reduction of manipulation by addressee.

Discussions concerning the term of info security still frequently occur. Info security is regarded as a range of concepts: *security – tranquility –*

*peace*, which another range of concepts is opposed: *danger – threat – war*. In regard with human relations the concepts “*war – peace*”, “*threat – tranquility*” are clear, but is it right to consider info security, media war in connection with mass media? War, either media war or another one means an enemy and besides devised and durable strategy of actions. Who can be the enemy of mass media today? Is it the Government that interests are kept up by mass media for the most part? Can one say about the strategy, circumspect and durable scenario of mass media? In our opinion, it is impossible.

### **Is media therapy a salvation?**

Within the mass media there are no clear ideas about the alignment future of political or economical forces. Very many publications are created by “one’s own bidding”. Journalists don’t know what guide of actions they will get tomorrow. Therefore, it is possible to mention neither info security nor media war, but to say mostly about the process of information adjustment. Besides, what does the analysis of mass media texts mean in the context of info security? It means to show the exposing potential of the text. Many investigations are aimed to figure out the process of manipulation of consciousness and emotions of an addressee promoted by mass media. Consequently, the notion of info security is closely connected with manipulative influence, although it is impossible to deny that info security has wider understanding. Within the limits of info security, new terms “mediatherapy”, “mediaanalytics”, “mediaeducation” and even the science “mediapsychology” have been created (Pronin & Pronina, 2008). Accordingly, the theme of info security is undoubtedly topical.

It is worth viewing the activity of the mass media on the part of info security in relation to an addressee. Media can really push certain opinions and create persuasions. For example, the negative image of local or governmental leader which has been created, sticks certain labels, and the object of the description become not simply recognizable. Now the entire chain of knowledge about him and his business would come into one’s mind.

Following argument that journalists change conceptualization of people about a political leader, it is a good point to analyze the texts by the Agency of Political Information (API), which has been working in

Yekaterinburg for ten years. A political struggle between the administration of Yekaterinburg headed by the Mayor Arkady Chernetsky and the administration of Sverdlovsk region governed by Eduard Rossel is well-known. Texts by API well illustrate the thesis that journalists are subordinated to their political “conductor”: they use intended volume of information and give it in accordance with the “from above” instructions. This dependence is connected with the character of estimations, ways of giving information, methods of their selection, also with language filling out of materials. One can see it in the texts by API, which are devoted to the image of the Governor of Sverdlovsk region Rossel. If we consider the texts by API since the end of 2004 till the beginning of 2008, one can see the changes of accents and estimations in the creation of the image of the governor because of those political changes which took place both in the country and in the region.

In the years of 2004—2005 API supported the conflict “city-region”, negative materials against the governor were put on agenda. API was officially allowed to discredit the opponent of Governor Rossel. However, already in the summer of 2005 political leaders got the news from Moscow that Rossel is going to run for the governor’s office in the third time, and Yekaterinburg will get financing for the building of underground and roads but only in case if the struggle “city-region” and. Besides, at that period Rossel must have become an honorary citizen of Yekaterinburg. As a matter of fact, the representatives of different structure were officially prohibited from speaking negatively about one another.

The texts by API become more positive, direct attacks against the governor disappear. 2006 passes quiet relatively. API allows itself rare and indirect attacks against the governor. At the end of 2006 – in the beginning of 2007 unstable neutrality is kept. On the first hand, it is connected with that the region begins to develop, new investors appear who equally give financing both the city and regional authorities. On the other hand, in December of 2006, in Yekaterinburg the Party congress of “The United Russia” was held, members of which are both the Mayor and the Governor. That’s why in December of 2006 there were rare utterances against Rossel. The years of 2007—2008 are characterized by tranquility, even sentimental friendship between two

leaders: as the members of the Party "The United Russia", Chernetsky and Rossel show public respect to each other. Following it, the comments by API became more neutral, giving much attention to the creation of positive image of Rossel. It is worth examining some particular examples and comparing different approaches used in the texts.

#### **Eduard Rossel lost grip and practically hang up his axe/28.04.05/API**

*"lately sixty-seven years old governor of the Sverdlovsk region Eduard Rossel evidently has become keen on breaking a record "Who has the most of all holidays in a year?" "..."*

*Lately Rossel as a traveller has fastened his gaze upon the south, Gulf States to be exact. Probably Rossel was tired of catching fish in the village of Hovenki where the governor likes to spend his rest and where he had built at the expense of regional budget modern autobahn 15 meters width... "..." This fact is amazing because practically in all meetings with journalists the Sverdlovsk governor declared that he would never spend his holiday outside "his native Sverdlovsk region". It sounds especially strikingly now if it was heard from the United Arab Emirates, where Rossel is enjoying the sun at the present moment, is very expensive because an accommodation in the hotel "Byrj Al Arab Hotel" where, according to some information, the governor stayed, costs several thousand US dollars per day.*

*"..." During the last two years the governor at working time meets only with different cultural figures... "..." Moreover Rossel receives his guests at a very high level that "costs a fortune to the regional budget". "..." Rossel even preferred the journey and rest abroad when there was time for Presidential Addresses to the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation. "..." In opinion of some deputies of the Regional Duma and political analysts, this behavior of the Sverdlovsk governor makes them think very seriously about the question how long Rossel will be hold on his post as governor. There is great possibility that in the near future Rossel will write a letter to Putin so that the head of the state will authorize him as the governor for the fourth time. Experts think that there is a 90 % possibility that the President won't nominate him to the Regional Duma and as compensation the President may offer him*

*Russian ambassadorship in Germany. "... It is worth noting that at all meetings without exceptions Rossel tells his guests about the programme of developing productive powers of Sverdlovsk region untill 2015. Frankly speaking, if we ask any citizen of Sverdlovsk city if he knows what it means, this question will strike persons. "... The image of Rossel as a constructor or an economic planner sank into oblivion long ago. The governor, telling the same old stories about economic and social successes of the Sverdlovsk region, operates with "fantastic" figures. For example, when Rossel says about financing of road facilities and the building of Yekaterinburg underground, he mentions 3,5 billion rubles, and the road builders and the builders of underground are even scared of dreaming about this. "... Construction is the most favorite theme for the governor. He is ready to discuss the successes in this sphere without turning a hair for hours. Listening to intoxicated speeches of the governor, do ask a question if the governor lives on the same planet or not. Is everything that is built in the region is Rossel's service in person? "... Lately the governor likes to count how many people gave him their votes in the last election which took place in 2003. If at the press conference at the end of 2004 Rossel declared that 2 millions of Sverdlovsk citizens voted for him, then a month later it was already mentioned about 3 millions, and in February this year the figure has become already 4 (!) million. "... Evidently Rossel feels his post of the governor is slipping away from him further and further, and he tries to encourage himself".*

In the above text the image of Rossel seems to be very negative. The image of this man looks dangerous, mercenary, power-loving. He is said to be unable to be in charge of the Sverdlovsk region in view of his age; nonetheless he continues to hold up to the power and to deceive citizens of the region.

The given image is built on the language expression. Such metaphorical meanings as "has become keen on breaking a record", "his post of the governor is slipping off", "telling the same old stories" lead to the creation of irony in the text. Phraseological units complement the ironic estimation: "indulged in breast-beating", "costs the regional budget a packet", "the image sank into oblivion long ago". The rhetorical question "if the governor lives on the same planet or not?" also enhances the negative characteristic. The analysis of Rossel's absurd



behavior is increased using estimative lexis: “fantastic” figures, intoxicated speeches, Rossel as a builder or an economic planner sank, as a traveler- these are applications which one can consider like ironic characteristics, because the activity of the governor is estimated very negatively. The image of the governor as a deceiver emphasizes by the examples of his lie. API appeals to words of the object and estimates the trueness of his utterances: Rossel declared that 2 millions of Sverdlovsk citizens voted for him, a month later it was 3 millions, and in February this year it has already become 4 (!) million. In order to prove the fact that Rossel is not going to run for governorship any longer, a well-known definition is frequently used: experts think ...

As it has been said, 2004 and the first half of 2005 were branded with negative attitude to Rossel by API. In the texts one can find language aggression, accusations, mockeries, sticking labels, direct insults and so on. API creates the image of a ne'er-do-well leader, who multiplies more evil than use both the region and the city. By the end of 2005 the situation changed. Instead of extensive reviews API give information notes, instead of imaginative characteristics one can find statements of fact and only the essence of an event. Here is the example.

**Eduard Rossel on the eve of City Day wished all citizens of Yekaterinburg happy life and prosperity /19.08.05/API**

*The honorary citizen of Yekaterinburg, the governor of Sverdlovsk region Eduard Rossel congratulated citizens of Yekaterinburg with City Day.<...>*

*“In October 2003 the summit meeting of the President of Russian Federation Vladimir Putin and the Chancellor of Federal Republic of Germany Gerhard Shroeder was held in Yekaterinburg and indicated eloquently this place as the capital of the Urals in the economic and social life of the country and it whipped up the interest of the part of foreign investors. The bright evidence of the increased rating became the appearance of well-known all over the world trade networks. <...>*

*“Our efforts are intended to increase the glory, attractiveness and economic independence of the capital of the Urals, make it not only industrial and business, but also cultural and social and tourist center so that citizens and guests of Yekaterinburg feel themselves comfortable and cozy. For this reason new roads are being built, the reconstruction*

and accomplishment of the airport “Koltsovo” are being done, important social projects are being realized With the support from the Regional Government in Yekaterinburg unique medical centers, equipped up to the latest world standards are created”. <...> “ All that makes glory and pride of the city being created by the hands of its industrious, strong in spirit, educated, courageous and strong-willed citizens. Yekaterinburg makes great contribution to the development of the region. One can see such motto on the emblem of the Sverdlovsk region: “Strong outskirts of the Power”, the motto is largely based on achievements and merits of Yekaterinburg. On the occasion of the holiday the governor of the Sverdlovsk region also sent a greetings telegram to the Mayor A. Tchernetsky. Eduard Rossel wished all citizens of the capital of the Ural happy life in native Yekaterinburg, health, successes and prosperity!”

The image of Rossel being compared with that in some other texts becomes if not more attractive, but definitely more positive. The quotation of the words of the governors is leading to accumulation of positive emotions. In congratulations there are very many positively painted words along with compliments to the citizens and high appreciation of the actions of the administration not only in the region but also in the city. All negatives are left aside. The image of Rossel now becomes much more neutral. This shifting away looks amazing when compared to the expressive texts of 2004 and 2005. In fact, an addressee turns out to be without any information, the negative hero turns now into a neutral one.

The correspondences relating to the period of 2007-2008 also reflect to what extent political passions brought together by former competitors, made API to change its evaluation of the governor of the region. By-past election both in the country and in the region, belonging to one party, one of the main parties in the state “The United Russia” makes Rossel and Tchernetsky team mates “by the reason of”. Here is the example.

**Eduard Rossel was awarded by “Dostyck” — the highest award of the Kazakhstan Republic 12/03.08 17:33/API**

*The Governor of the Sverdlovsk region Eduard Rossel today has been solemnly awarded by the Kazakh Order of Friendship of the second degree. <...>Nurtai Abyckov noticed, that Eduard Rossel was honored*

this award in accordance with the decree of the President of the Kazakhstan Republic Nursultan Nazarbaev “for transcendental merits before the state, social activity, significant contribution to the social, economical and cultural development of the country along with strengthening friendship and cooperation between the nations.<...> It should be mentioned that The Order “Dostyck” is the award given to foreigners by the Kazakhstan Government for their contribution to the development of peace and relationships between the nations .This award has already been handed to such outstanding social political personalities as Patriarch Alexius, Kofi Annan, Mikhail Kalashnikov, Sergey Lavrov, Yevgeny Primakov, Aman Tuleev, Margaret Thatcher.

In the texts during the period of 2007-2008 Rossel does not seem to have negative feature. Rossel's utterances are given only in a positive way, his activity is estimated as “excellent”. If earlier readers had been adduced with proofs that Rossel's phrases were deceptive, in the texts of 2007—2008 Rosel's promises were are still given in positive evaluations. If earlier the figures given by Rossel, had been regarded ridiculously, now the governor's statistics is not commented at all, moreover it is estimated positively.

Thus, in the texts by API submitting the image of the hero for the mass media depend on “instructions received from above”. The position of journalists and their dependence on political circumstances confirm that the same fact may be interpreted by them differently.

## **Conclusion**

Within the limits of info security one can say that an addressee of API gets periodically mutilate texts. The wrench of information aroused not only due to dependence under which the journalists interpret events, but mainly because they are give some certain instructions of how and what information should be given. This is one-sided information. The journalists themselves are placed in a difficult position; therefore freedom of choice and a real interpretation for them are lost. Often newsmen have to ignore even interesting facts. This all contributes to the lowering of their professional level. As a result, the dependent position of the mass media tells negatively about activity of journalists

and makes it difficult for information receivers to see occurrences objectively.

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# **INTERPRETATION AND RESPONSIBILITY: IN SEARCH OF HARMONY**

**Dr. Irina Volchkova**

**Department of Theory of Architecture  
and Professional Communications**

**Ural State Academy of Architecture and Art, Ekaterinburg**

**Key words:** journalistic safety, subjectivity, objectivity, journalistic fact, factual interpretation, communicative act.

## **Introduction**

The problem of interaction between an individual and society is not new, but still actual, and leads to interpretation of validity and responsibility of the author. The latter understands the term *interpretation* as a factual explanation that often is subjective. The one-sided approach deforms a reality or extends it in a rank of the symbolism. The term of information explosion introduced by M. Epstein in the late XX century has encompassed excessively the problem of involvement into reality with “semantic sensitivity” (Epstein, 2005:48). Information is transferred and accepted as the model. Attempts to analyze interpretation of information units are considered as an intrusion into another’s space or, on the contrary, as aspiration to leave reality.

## **In search of journalistic safety**

The modern approach to the problem in cognitive/pragmatic frames allows considering it as not a result, but the process which needs new conceptual generalizations.

In journalism there exist the certain frames, which limited the process of creativity: «The comments are not news... The facts are sacred». (Rendall, 1996: 33).

The aspiration to emotions should not become a barrier for an adequate and truthful display of validity. In other words, reliability and safety of the journalistic text are unconditional. Journalism as the special area of the information sphere should be based on two basic functions: the information of facts and their interpretation, i. e. explanation and evaluation.

The dynamics of processes in a modern society needs to provide not only adequate representation of the facts. It is necessary to consider the specifics of the process of information interchange. In particular, there is an increase in a modern situation of a role of the so-called subjective factor.

“The process of the transformation of event as the objective phenomena in the information on event is repeatedly mediated by human subjectivity, including, emotionally painted «language» of the message: verbal, nonverbal, visual. <...> Stereotypes submitted by the «language» of an interpreter of events are inevitable” (Oleshko 1997: 4).

The facts themselves are not descriptive but eliminate all private characteristics of an event and pay attention only to its essence. There is no reason to speak about the «naked» facts. However the fact has also a back side: it always attributes only to a part in the event. Let's take an example of freeing hostages who have been seized by terrorists. The facts can be presented differently:

- The hostages are released. Nobody suffered;
- The event was regarded as extremely cruel in regard with the participants;

The same event is submitted in different way depending on that we consider as the main thing. We pay attention to the main points of the topic (Chepkina & Uvarova, 2004: 31-34).

The first level of the expression of an author's individuality and of responsibility is selection of the facts. A journalist should solve, whether information is socially significant and to define how much this information is ambiguous, whether it needs to be analyzed and interpreted positively or negatively. The specifics of language is going to be selected.

If the fact is ambiguous, a journalist should dwell upon certain technique of displaying it. In practice a newsman often speaks on behalf of himself or of the edition while propagating certain things.

There is, certainly, an ambiguous situation: a noisy «comical scandal» which captured many countries and regions. It also gives an occasion

for different politicians to evaluate the situations according to their standards. Both parties, Islamic and European, have exchanged blows through mass media. In Russia where, as is known, Moslems is a considerable part of the population, the banner of fight against the «profaners» was picked up by the head of Chechen government Ramzan Kadyrov. He promised to forbid everything that stirs to it. Olga Romanova, a contributor to the magazine *Russian Newsweek*, sarcastically explained this phenomenon (Romanova, 2006: 42).

At the same time the edition *Human Rights Watch* recognized for Moslems the right to take offence and enter reciprocal measures: «Why the right to free expression of opinions should protect the publication which appeared to be extremely offensive for many Moslems? In many European countries the laws on a blasphemy still remain, although in practice they are not applied regularly. Some laws protect only certain religions, such, as Christianity. In this case they have obviously a discrimination character and, probably, reflect wider social discrimination» («Caricturniy scandal...» 24.02.2006). And the weekly Russian-American Internet edition *New Russian Word* has put a heading «Caricature scandal is provoked by the terrorists». A similar step looked as refusal from the proclaimed objectivity. The demonstrative substitution is available and the religious concepts turn to words-symbols: the Moslems and Islamism are equal to concepts of terrorism. «The aggressive logosphere is not only a society product. It actively forms the society itself» (Mihalskaya 1999, № 227).

Journalism simultaneously is creative tool, as well as technology of influence. A journalist considers himself as a person who makes a certain information product and defines the agenda of the communication space. As a result, «there is a certain phantom when mass media are considered by the journalist as implementers of its sights» (Dzyaloshinskiy, 2002:32). This is a preface of non-critical attitude to texts and a confirmation of irresponsible short-sightedness. The journalistic performance is both a creative and communicative act. There are also the addressee and the sender. In addition, there is a message. The aim of journalism, as special kind of creative activity, is to address material accurately, and loss of communication with the targeted audience is pernicious for journalistic creativity.

The depersonalization of journalism lessens its popularity. *The Russian Magazine's* observer Marina Jurchenko notes that today the press review is not meaningful: «to familiarize with news, it is enough to hold one newspaper..., aesthetic disputes are all in the past» (Yurchenko, 2002).

Each author is free to choose how to depict the situation. Emotions and a personal opinion of a journalist create an additional picture. For example, Michael Leontev, the presenter of the program «However (Odnako)» on the «I Channel», considers frankness and sharpness of estimations as the «author's handwriting». The journalist often stresses that he has to express his personal opinion, but is also eager for independent comments about the event. Leontev's exclusive comments for the website KM.RU are obviously subjective. He creates the text information field, realizing himself as a specific a person, according to linguistic forms used in addition with cognitive and pragmatic rules (Gasparov, 1996:296).

The opposite strategy which also has a success is the strategy of political presentations by Vladimir Pozner. His program «Times» (also on the «I Channel») is aimed to provide truth. Experts are invited, opposite viewpoints are welcome, and the so-called «fresh head», a person from outside, is involved in the talk so that he/she could express an unbiased opinion. «The journalist forming a dialogue with the audience is not being refrained from his opinions on ongoing events and the facts being listened not only «from above», but also «from below» (Strovsky, 2006: 76). The responsibility of the journalist in managing high-grade dialogue which does not reject diverse views make the plots more clarified.

A journalistic responsibility assumes that the author should weigh, whether it is worth justifying the consequences of using freedom of information. Vladimir Pozner was probably right by saying that it is important for a journalist to remember the following: «It is impossible to shout in the overflowed hall: «Fire!», even if this seems to be truthful». The limits also concern, for instance, private life of people.

## **Conclusion**

A famous Soviet journalist Anatoly Agranovsky has always considered himself as a «pure» journalist but not a writer. His journalistic texts



were the congruence of freedom and responsibility. The main problem of «golden middle» in journalism probably is maintenance of the balance between creativity and objectivity on the one hand, and personal evaluations of the author, on the other one. Bearing this burden is still an extremely hard job.

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# **CORPORATE MASS MEDIA: ITS DEFINITION AND VALUES IN THE INFORMATION SOCIETY**

**Dr. Yuri Chemyakin**

**Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** corporate media, corporate publishing business communication, commerce organization

## **Introduction**

At the moment corporate mass media in Russia and all over the World are experiencing period of high growth. Considering many important indicators (such as number of different publications, number of circulation, size of market, dynamic of its growing etc.), corporate mass media are becoming one of the leading types of mass media.

Corporate mass media are a unique type of mass media because it is naturally combining journalism and other types of mass communication (PR, advertisement, propaganda). Corporate mass media, generally speaking, from the point of view of its aims and tasks, is the element of marketing communications, but methods and tools to achieve those goals are mainly journalistic.

Active development of corporate media asks for examination, involving native and foreign experiences. Especially important is to examine, what impact mass media has on the audience and mass media system in general. Even more important it is from the point of view of investigation journalism (for example, in different conferences) it is possible to hear concern if corporate mass media won't stop the development of the mainstream media? The concern and the most often asked questions is - if professional journalistic standards, which are fighting for public's interests and aim for objectivity, will remain the same after corporate mass media will start to dominate and will represent interests of certain companies. Yes, it is serious question, directly connected with safety of information in the interest of society.

## **Corporate media: thinking of a definition**

In the author's point of view, for the so-called "usual" or common mass media the idea to remain its respected position means only doing job in the best quality, which includes protection of social interests. In reality

many mass media (including so called formal “independent media”) are protecting interests of concrete officials, governmental institutions, and big business instead of interests of society. And if we compare such mass media to corporate mass media, it is possible to admit that corporate mass media is having more good will as they honestly admit and tell, what interests do they represent and who is their real publisher.

The process of examination and theoretical insight of corporate mass media has started. But there are still many unclear factors and unsolved problems. The main theoretical problem is serious disagreement about the term and the meaning of corporate mass media itself. It is very important to try to answer directly to the question: “What is the corporate mass media?”. Otherwise it will be difficult to understand what mass media can be really called as corporate and what place it occupies with the system of mass media. Clear answers to this question can help in the long run to scrutinize the frameworks for building up different theories about corporate mass media. It is essential to answer this question because the law system in Russia on the mass media does not mention and specifies the features of corporate mass media, and it is the negative factor in its development. Yet, starting with the features of this media needs its specific definition and explanation. The author of this article, nonetheless, seems to be slightly hesitant about providing direct definitions and conclusions (what is not possible in the structure of the article either). Our main goal is dealing with basic ideas and reflections which, in turn, can better help to the core of the issue.

Let's start with some famous definitions of corporate mass media.

- 1) “Non-commercial edition, which is published by organisation to maintain the contact with employees and wider part of audience beyond the organisation (Black, 2002: 70);
- 2) “Resource, which is informing about tasks, aims, achievements, news, products and offers of company. It is being published by finances of company and more often is not containing information about other subjects of business. It is primarily meant for employees of company, clients and partners...”(Dikanova [www.gudym.ru](http://www.gudym.ru));
- 3) “Published periodically (not less than once a year) by finances of the company (completely or partly), meant for concrete aim group and reflects interests of the company” (Serebryakov, 2002);

4) “Corporate mass media – print (television, radio) media, who is belonging to industrial companies, holdings, corporations. Manager of those corporate mass media usually are managing structures of company or organisation”. (Lozovsky, 2004: 51);

5) Mass media, being published or released by one corporation, for which the certain way of publishing is not the part of business profile (the definition was used on the II International conference “The role of corporate mass media in managing company” (February 18, 2005.).

The first three definitions are more or less reflecting aim, functions and audience of corporate mass media. The two last definitions are making an accent in describing the company – the owner of corporate media. Let's start with first three definitions. In all three in one way or another it is highlighted that corporate media, firstly, is serving to interests of concrete company, supporting its aims, secondly, is published by finances of company, and thirdly, are meant for those people who are connected with the business of company: employees, clients etc. In the meantime many corporate mass media — partly or fully — is achieving profitability. It is done by advertisements or number of circulation. Therefore, in our point of view, definition could be used without word “non-commercial”. It is important to point out that corporate media are not always published or released by company or organisation, whose interests it is reflecting. Sometimes the company is only a contracting authority, but a contractor is a publishing house or advertisement agency. The fourth and fifth definitions are raising even more questions. If it means that mass media is published by industrial companies, then – what about those corporate media being published by sales companies, banks, insurance companies etc.? If the fourth definition talks about any type of company or corporation, then it is different. But publishing house “Komsomolskaya Pravda” or publishing house “Kommersant” – it is company too. Can we make a conclusion that all mass media published by them are corporate? If we, considering definition number five, are excluding publishing houses, editorial offices, does it mean that such mass media as magazine “Partner”, what is published by publishing house “Komsomolskaya Pravda” for regional editorial boards (and having a note on it – “for internal use”) is not the corporate media? More concrete and laconic definition is given by Murzin: “Corporate media — it is the instrument of managing the

corporation and having all features of mass media" (Iurzin, 2005: 85). In this definition we can find both – meaning and function of the mass media type – to be as one of the tool of management of corporation.

The author would like to try to give his own definition of corporate mass media: "Periodically published issue, radio, TV, video program, internet site or another form of periodically spread information, what is reflecting interests of the certain corporation and dealing with the given task".

### **Corporate vs. governmental**

Finally, what is the role of corporate mass media in the system of mass media generally? What mass media can we consider to be corporate? Some researchers and practitioners are considering that corporate mass media can be only those who are published and released by commercial companies, but others are saying that mass media, which are published by structures of government, non-profit organisations, and non-governmental organisations, are corporate too. The most famous supporter of first point of view, researcher Murzin, considers corporate mass media as a part of business mass media – "...mass media, which social function is to provide a business communication and to satisfy needs of business society..." (Iurzin, 2005a: 55). He is highlighting that the term "corporate publishing" comes from American practise of periodically published mass media, and this is the main reason to understand the term exactly like he does. The term "Corporate mass media" appeared in the USA and initially had the meaning of *media of corporation* or the *media of company*," writes the researcher. "It means that the media had to be switched to issues published by a company or government and its institutions (Iurzin, 2007: 3). Murzin thinks that "there is no need to explain the term more broadly, as if it goes outside of framework of interests of exact company, for example, including non-commercial organisations, it means – changes of functions, what accordingly means - changes of the type" (Iurzin, 2007: 3). This exact approach is leaving outside of research such important mass media as media published by governmental structures, non-governmental organisations, it doesn't consider that those mass media are reflecting interests of organisation, formatting a positive image and being as an instrument of management. But it is the most important function of mass media.

By the way, editors usually form and reflect about their media as a part of their corporations. They are active participants of conferences, seminars and competitions of corporate mass media, and very often are winners of those competitions as well (following the experience of *The Rescuer*, a newspaper of the Ministry of Emergency Situations of Russia or of *Vita Sfera. Southern Ural*, the publication of the Department of Russian Agricultural Surveillance in the Chelyabinsk Oblast). Let's have another example. According to the program of XI International Summer School of Journalism held in St. Petersburg in 2007, the participants visited the press service of the state enterprise «Vodocanal St. Petersburg». The press service releases a monthly corporate newspaper *Vodocanal Novosti* and calls it as a corporate newspaper. Do we consider the state enterprise «Vodocanal...» as not the most successful example? Does it mean that this newspaper was wrongly evaluated as corporate?

The problem related to the term “corporate mass media” (where “corporate” means only commercial), is that it is difficult to find a certain border between commercial and non-commercial. According to Murzin, for example, issues, published by commercial companies can be called corporate, but media, published by governmental institutions — not. In the meantime, the both might have the same aims and functions, and even content models can be identical. In fact, many governmental and municipal structures provide commercial services. Is it possible to make a conclusion that the media published by them are corporate only for 45 or 60%, depending on the amount of commercial services? Doesn't it sound a little bit of an absurdity?

It is worth agreeing with Murzin that before giving a definition to something, we should consider its history. “When it comes from different language, it is necessary to consider the specific use of the word before switching it to the term” (Murzin, 2007: 2). In addition, it is probably wrong not to consider present Russian practice regarding the corporate media. It is not good either not to take into account how the term is explained in vocabularies. It is also worth studying the concept of the corporation. It makes much easier to understand what the corporate media is. What we also need is comprehension if the terms “corporate” and “corporation” really relate to business.

In the Big Russian encyclopaedic dictionary (2003: 724) it is possible to find the definition for the term. Corporation as is said stems from the word “corporation” — consolidation and has some meanings: 1) consolidation, society, unity. 2) (legal, juridical) consolidation of persons, who are united for achieving a certain goal, legal entity”. A similar explanation, by the way, is provided by the Encyclopaedic dictionary by Brokgouse and Efron: “Corporation, legal (juridical) is the word attributed to describe different types of societies which have inner organisations, unite members together and follow certain rules of rights and obligations including their legal entities”. In the Economical Encyclopaedia only one of two explanations of the term “corporation” is related to commerce: “1) Unity of persons, united for achieving the same goals, being together to put into effect common operations and being as a subject of rights concerning legal entity. 2) A widely developed form of organisation in the developed countries which considers ownership and has the legal status such as legal entity, and has certain level of management enabling to organize the work and to recruit employees. In the same Encyclopaedia there is possible to find a separate term of non-profit corporations. These are specialised units which, comparing to commerce organisations, are not orientated to get a profit from their operations. Accordingly, the term “corporative” is explained in the dictionaries as a “select group” or something what is protected from outside influences.

## **Conclusion**

Therefore it is possible to have two kinds of approaches towards understanding of the concept of corporate mass media. In the narrow meaning related to traditional understanding and historical roots of exact type of mass media, corporate mass media are those which are published or released by the commercial company. However in the larger context corporate mass media can be any publication released by a corporation including non-governmental and religious organisations, parties, governmental structures, etc. Following this, under the necessity to highlight differences it is possible to use the term “mass media of commercial corporation” or “mass media of non-commercial organisation”.

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# **MASS MEDIA AND ADVERTISING:THE TURKISH VERSION OF A PROBLEMATIC RELATIONSHIP**

**Prof. Ümit Atabek**

**Faculty of Communication, Akdeniz University**

**Key words:** advertising business and revenues, electronic and printing media, economic crisis, oligopoly structure, media diversification, media financing.

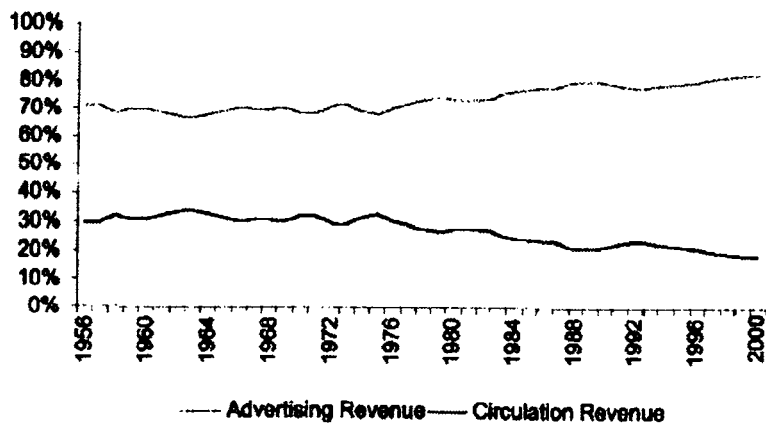
Finance of media organizations has always been an important topic among media scholars. This interest is not a mere micro-economic one based exclusively on the managerial effectiveness of the media industry. A number of media scholars study the finance of media because of they understand the strong relationship between the content and the finance model of the media organization. How a media organization is financed strongly shapes the content which is produced through the activities of that media organization. For instance if the media organization is financed through a conglomerate which has many financial interest other than the mass media content production, then it is more likely that the media content provided by that organization is friendly to big business and capitalism. Bagdikian (2004) suggests that this is one of the major reasons why the conglomerate news media missed the improprieties of scandalous Enron and Worldcom events in 2001. Media finance model may even affect the quality of news. McChesney (2004) claims that big corporation financing of news production has resulted in cost-cutting measures applied to the news production in compliance with the managerial policies of those corporations. This in turn, causes poor reporting due to fewer correspondents who usually tend to shoddy reporting rather than the investigative journalism practices.

Picard points out that today major media companies rank in the 100-200 range of 500 largest US companies, along with main advertisers such as Colgate-Palmolive, General Mills, etc.(2004, p.54), and this big business is responsible for poor content:

The primary content of newspapers today is commercialized news and features designed to appeal to broad audiences, to

entertain, to be cost effective and to maintain readers whose attention can be sold to advertisers. The result is that stories that may offend are ignored in favor of those more acceptable and entertaining to larger numbers of readers, that stories that are costly to cover are downplayed or ignored and that stories creating financial risks are ignored. This leads to homogenization of newspaper content, to coverage of “safe” issues and to a diminution of the range of opinion and ideas expressed. (p. 61)

On the other hand, it is commonly agreed that advertising is of vital importance for the survival of mass media organizations in capitalistic societies. In modern mass media management important portions of the finance basically comes from advertising. Picard (2002) calculated the ratio of advertising revenues of US newspapers as 82 % and circulation revenues as 18 % in 2000. This ratio was 71-29 % in 1956 (see Figure 1). This figure makes it clear that the newspapers now need more advertising revenue than before. Here we should also consider the new trend of free newspaper which totally depends on advertising.



**FIGURE 1: Percentage of Newspaper Revenue from Advertising (Picard, 2002)**

Although the ratio of advertising revenues differs in each different media, it is the advertisement business from which the owners, editors and content producers are all distressed severely. Table 1 shows how different media obtains revenue; broadcast television and radio are the most dependent ones on advertising, while cable television systems are the least advertising dependent. Among print media only consumer magazines seems to be moderately dependent on advertising revenue, while newspapers and trade magazines are comparatively more dependent on advertising revenues.

<b>MEDIA</b>	<b>AUDIENCE SALES (Advertising)%</b>	<b>CONTENT SALES %</b>
Broadcast television	100	0
Cable television systems	15	85
Cable television networks	60	40
Broadcast radio	100	0
Newspapers	70	30
Consumer magazines	50	50
Trade magazines	90	10
Internet sites	Varies	Varies

**TABLE 1: Media Revenue Source (Napoli, 2003)**

This table reveals that any investigation of the financial survival problems of today's mass media organizations must include advertising as a crucial factor. There is basically no medium which is free from the need of advertising revenue. On the other hand, advertising business requires a strong media environment. It is generally believed that the more people are exposed to mass media the more vivid the advertising sectors are. If the mass media in a country is diversified and multifarious then it is more likely that the advertising sectors in that country is versatile and powerful. Therefore both the mass media and the advertising business need each other inevitably. This problematic relationship between mass media and advertising sector is an excellent field of research for understanding the mass media in a country.

Today total world advertising spending is estimated as 455,1 billion USD for 2007 (ZenithOptimedia, 2007). The share of each medium for total advertising spending in the year 2006 is as follows:

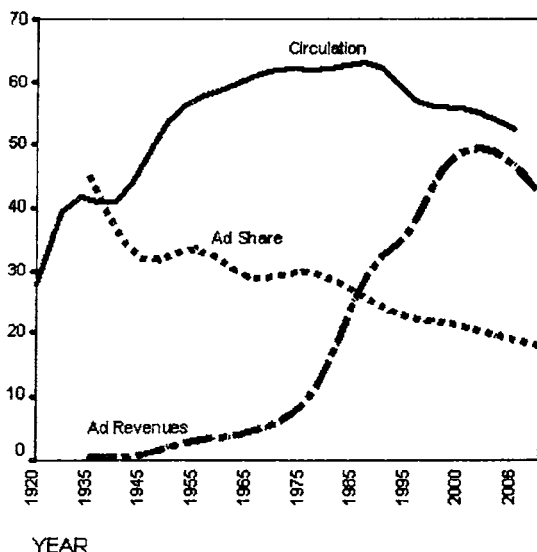
Media	% Share in Total World Ad spending	% Share in Total US Ad spending	% Share in Total Turkish Ad spending
Newspapers	29,0	18,8	33,1
Magazines	12,5	19,3	3,8
Television	37,8	44,0	52,3
Radio	8,3	7,5	3,6
Internet	6,4	6,5	1,2
Other	5,9	3,8	6,0

**TABLE 2: Media Shares in Total World Advertising**  
**(Compiled from ZenithOptimedia, 2007; TNS, 2008; RD, 2008)**

As Table 2 shows television is the first medium which receives the advertising spending. Although the order may change for different countries, newspapers take the second, magazines take the third, radio takes the forth and internet takes the fifth place. However this is changing with new media coming into the advertising business, internet and mobile being the most important ones. These new media are receiving their portion mostly from electronic (television + radio) and print (newspapers + magazines) media. However, newspapers have been gradually losing its share mostly in favor of electronic media since 1930's in US. The same situation can be seen in many other countries including Turkey. However in some European countries such as Germany, for 2007 share of television is as low as 22 % (WAN, 2006). As can be seen from Table 3 advertising spending share of newspapers in US has decreased from 45 % in 1935 down to 17.7 % in 2007. It is quite important to notice that this loss of share is accompanied with the increase of both advertising revenues and circulation. Figure 2 shows this; during this loss of share, US newspaper advertising revenue has increased from 70 million USD in 1935 to 46 billion in 2006 while US daily newspaper circulation has increased from 27 million in 1920 to 52 million in 2006.

YEAR	% SHARE
1935	45,0
1945	32,0
1955	33,6
1965	29,0
1975	29,9
1985	26,6
1995	22,5
1998	21,8
2004	20,4
2005	20,2
2006	18,8
2007	17,7

**TABLE 3: Newspaper Share of Total US Advertising**  
 (Source: [www.naa.org](http://www.naa.org) and Compaine and Gomery, 2000)



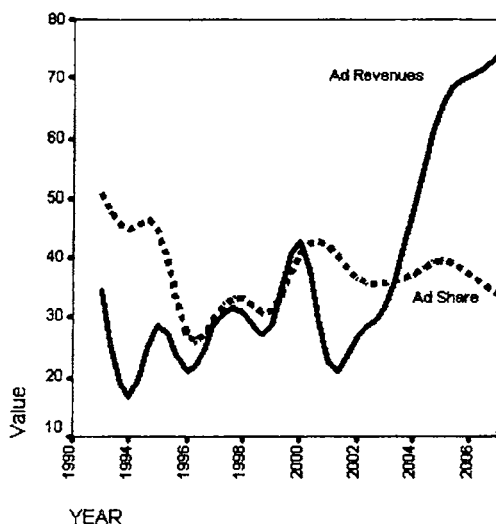
**FIGURE 2: US Newspaper Advertising Revenue and Circulation during a Period of Advertising Share Lose**  
 (Source: [www.naa.org](http://www.naa.org) and Compaine and Gomery, 2000)

Almost similar developments took place for the Turkish press since the introduction of television. Within last decade, Turkish newspaper advertising share has decreased in favor of television advertising. The first television transmissions began as late as 1968 only in Ankara region by TRT, Turkish public broadcaster. However, television advertising could only be a real rival for the newspaper advertising after late 1990's when electronic media was deregulated. The deregulation process was not an easy one; in 1990 a de facto television broadcaster Magic Box (owned by the son of then Prime Minister T. Ozal) started transmissions from Germany through satellite well before the legal steps had been taken to abolish the state monopoly on television broadcasting. In 1994 the legislations was passed by the parliament to fully deregulate the television sector, only then private television broadcasts had become legalized. After 1994, Turkish television industry had witnessed a boom expansion. In late 1990's, the Turkish advertising market had already been a television dominated market. These developments had significant impact on the newspaper advertising share. As seen from the Table 4, the print media (newspaper + magazine) advertising share decreased from 55,7 % in 1983 to 33,6 % in 2007 while television advertising share increased from 30,5 % in 1983 to 53,2 % in 2007.

YEAR	TV %	Print %
1983	30,50	55,70
1993	43,00	50,90
1994	39,38	44,86
1995	39,38	44,86
1996	40,40	27,30
1997	31,00	30,00
1998	31,00	33,00
1999	32,00	31,00
2000	42,50	40,60
2001	42,10	41,90
2002	50,00	36,50
2003	52,50	35,70
2004	52,20	37,20
2005	50,70	39,50
2006	52,30	37,00
2007	53,20	33,60

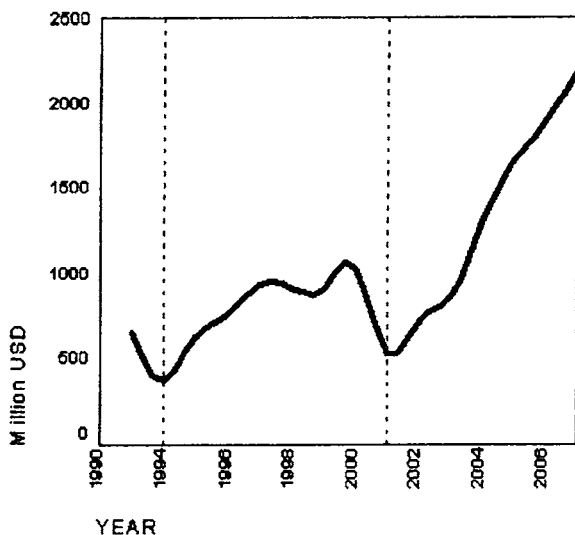
**TABLE 3: Turkish Print Media and TV Advertising Shares**  
**(Compiled from RD, 2008 and Koloğlu 1993)**

On the other hand, almost similar to the US media, although newspaper advertising share declines over years, advertising revenues and circulation increases in Turkey. This can be seen from Figure 3; advertising revenues increased from 343 million USD in 1993 to 739 million in 2007 while circulation also increased from 3 million in 1990 to 5 million in 2007.



**FIGURE 3: Turkish Print Media Advertising Share, Advertising Revenues and Circulation (Compiled from RD, 2008 and Koloğlu 1993)**

Turkish advertising spending has a steady increase after 1990's. However, as Figure 3 shows, 1994 and 2001 economic crises had a strong impact on newspaper advertising revenues as well as total advertising spending. Total advertising spending also dropped radically during these crises as shown in Figure 4. These data imply that advertising business is heavily dependent upon economics of a country. During an economic crisis advertising revenues quickly slack off. What happened in Turkey during these crises was a bitter lesson for all media people; many journalists lost their jobs. That was an inevitable consequence of a heavily advertising dependent media finance model.



**FIGURE 4: Advertising Spending in Turkey  
(Compiled from RD, 2008)**

Another central concern on the advertising dependent finance is the monopolistic tendencies of the media markets. Turkish media markets are heavily concentrated by cross ownership and can be labeled as an oligopoly (Cristensen, 2007; Adaklý, 2006). This oligopolistic structure is important because very limited number of media groups control a major part of the market and therefore controlling the advertising revenues. Thus advertising revenue controlling is possible by an oligopoly structure in which powerful ones control the most of the content production process. Table 4 shows how three groups control the majority of Turkish media landscape. The control on newspaper advertising revenues is the severest one; two Doğan Media Group newspapers, namely *Hurriyet* and *Milliyet* account nearly for 2/3 of all newspaper advertising revenues, thus making the finance of smaller ones almost impossible based on an advertising dependent finance model.



Media Group	Television Audience %		Newspaper Circulation %		Newspaper Advertising %		Total Advertising %	
	2004	2006	2004	2006	2004	2006	2004	2006
Doğan	17	24,2	39	36	62	61,7	38	42,1
Sabah	13	13,6	22	21	21	18,9	17	18,5
Çukurova	18	15,6	9	9	5	4,1	13	12,1
Star	9	-	2	2	1	1,2	6	-
İhlas	8	5,1	4	4	2	2	3	2,1
Others	35	41,3	24	27	13	12,1	23	25,2
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

**TABLE 4: Major Media Group's Share in the Market**  
(Compiled from DYH 2006 and Cristensen 2007)

Today, the finance model of Turkish media is heavily dependent on advertising revenues. However, the 2,2 billion USD yearly advertising industry is far from being adequate for an ever growing Turkish media. Besides, the steadily decline of newspaper market in general affect the picture even worse. Therefore, especially small scaled alternative and/or local media organizations require other models of finance than the mainstream strong ones. A form of financial support model may be useful. Here we can propose the Norwegian model of subsidies for smaller newspapers to prevent their passing away from the market in order to maintain the legitimacy of parliamentary political system (Host, 1999). Turkish press has a complicated and not so effective support system for smaller local newspapers through the distribution of public ads by Press Advertisement Institution. This indirect support system must also be improved and revised. However, further intellectual efforts are needed for a less complicated and better functioning support system tailored for Turkish media landscape in order to guarantee free speech which seems impossible in a heavily advertising dependent media system.

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# A QUESTION OF INFORMATION SAFETY IN ADVERTISING DISCOURSE

Dr. Elina Bulatova

Journalism Faculty, Ural State University

**Key words:** consumers, advertising, genre of announcement, cognitive sphere, text motivation, self-expression, ethic, tolerance.

## Introduction

An interdisciplinary character of the term *information safety*, on the one hand, sets a wide area for its use; on the other hand, it generates illegibility and necessity for specification of the maintenance of the given concept.

Speaking about information safety, we, first of all, mean «cleanliness», «transparency» of the information for the addressee; that is the absence of the latent components having the manipulative nature. Since the latent components of the sense are used widely enough and it is not always connected with manipulation, it is worth have to specifying: that in this case we don't speak about the written texts in which means of indirect transfer of sense are used with aesthetic influence.

It is a question of texts in which implicit components have a manipulative character and are applied for achieving a pragmatic purpose. For maintenance of information safety, it is necessary for addressee to know about these components and their markers in order to be protected from attempts of intervention (as a rule, persuasive and aggressive) in the mental space.

In this connection, transparency of information for the addressee is considered as main principle for observing information safety. Markers of its infringement are the signals of that circumstance; that is when the text confuses the reader. One of the areas in which the manipulative texts containing latent senses actively function, is advertising. Infringement of principles of information safety of a material in advertising discourse consists of concealment of the fact, that the text has advertising character.

Accordingly, markers of infringement of information safety are attributes of an advertising orientation of a material which allow perceiving one «to identify» a discourse. The set of these attributes we, following E.A.Lazareva [2005: 84], name an «advertising» signal.

It is possible to allocate substantial and formal «advertising» signals, allowing the addressee to identify the text as belonging to advertising discourse. The substantial signals are a theme (a subject of advertising); the basic idea of an advertising product; the argument in favour of the purchase, submitted according to three maxims of the advertising text concern: maxim of commands, maxim of persistence and maxim of unique appeal. The formal signals of «advertising» can be: 1) the specific channel of an information transfer (the advertising module, a publicity board, a leaflet, etc.), 2) brightness, 3) a special character of submission of a material: fireolization of the text, the use of audio and visual signs, 4) use of a special print, 5) special instructions: «as advertising», etc.

The advertising texts concealing the fact of «advertising», resorting to indirect transfer of advertising sense («Buy!») with a view of expressiveness, the attraction of attention (to overcome the unwillingness to perceive the advertisement), and also to conceal the author's pragmatic intention, and to increase suggestive potential of the text (the purposes, as a rule, interconnected) are the texts of indirect advertising which are modelling the indirect advertising communications. An indirect advertising has a set of variants. We shall note two cases of the use which represent two receptions of creation of indirect advertising: 1) reception of cognitive collisions, 2) secondary advertising genres — concealing promotional materials not in advertising - publicistic, scientific, etc.

### **Reception of cognitive collisions**

Lazareva was the first to allocate this. The idea of reception of cognitive collisions consists of modelling under which the text is based on the concealment of the author's intention to achieve the guaranteed influence on the addressee [Lazareva 2005]. In advertising discourse, the given reception is realized by means of modelling the situations of interaction between the author and the addressee and of modelling the interaction of conceptual spheres.

Modelling of interaction between the author and the addressee is carried out by latent transfer of pragmatic information on a background of the explicit information, deprived of a pragmatical charge. The text becomes multiplane; it contains two situations — obvious and hidden.

In an advertising discourse, the situation of sale is often hidden behind situations of a «not advertising» character. So, instead of a situation «Buy the goods / take advantage of service» a creator of advertisements can simulate a situation for «changing for the better». That the message «with a dirty trick», the addressee guesses owing to the background knowledge. For example the here is an advertisement for fragrance «HUGO BOSS» (magazine «Elle», 1997). The announcement is extremely laconic. A photo of a young man accompanies a verbal invitation «Create itself. Do not imitate» with the photo of the young man attached. In the right bottom corner, there is a bottle of perfume. The author's intention is expressed openly, by means of the form of an imperative mood. It is a question of freedom of self-expression. The appeals to make a purchase are absent. However, the situation created in the text «change for the better» mismatches the true purpose of the sender of advertising - to sell the declared goods. Direct imperative sense of the text («Create!») implies the sense «buy». Markers of infringement of a principle of information safety are expressed in formal signals of «advertising». These are: 1) the specific channel of the information transfer (the advertising module), 2) brightness, 3) a special character of submission of a material: fireolization of the text, the use of visual signs, 4) use of a special print. The substantial signals in this case are not expressed, except for a nonverbal designation of a theme (the image of a subject of advertising is a bottle of perfume).

In an advertising, discourse for creating an indirect advertising modelling of the following communicative situations of interaction between the author and the addressee is used: a situation «receive the goods free of charge», «receive a gift»; a situation «receive the discount!»; a situation «accept a congratulation»; a situation — the announcement «presentation of significant event»; a situation «receive useful / interesting information»; a situation «change the world for the best / change for the better»; a situation «participate in a competition», etc.

### **Modelling of interaction of conceptual spheres in an advertising discourse**

A linguistic aspect modelling of interaction with conceptual spheres is carried out «with the use of the created words concerning different cognitive areas, not connected with each other in a reality and, most

importantly, in an advertising discourse there are no «bridges» connecting these diverse means» [Lazareva 2005: 125]. We shall cite as an example an ad for furniture (external panelboard advertising, March, 2008). A verbal component «New sounding of classics. Himolla. Upholstered furniture from Germany» is visually added: a sofa and a conductor facing it and waving a stick. In the same text, there are spheres which are actually not connected: for instance the sphere of music and the sphere of furniture are intertwined.

A reader predicts the further expansion of the text by perceiving his/her element in a strong position. The effect of this deceived expectation stimulates the search of the implied sense. In this case a motivational part is based on overlapping cognitive spheres, the basis of their interaction is implied.

As a result, motivational communication between adjacent subjects are unsteady and uncertain. The circle of the facts which can enter into a motivational fields is extensive. The perception of the advertising using reception of cognitive collision, is similar to reception of discharged knowledge, the mechanism of which is as follows: if subjects of advertising X and Y are incorporated in borders of a text, it means, that between them there is something general. What exactly? The search of answers to a similar question leads the addressee to possible variants of answers. There can be several variants as the text supposes some interpretations. As a consequence, the facts are suggestive. Besides, the presence of interpretive variants is caused by the distinction existing between individual pictures of the world, and of those who perceive. Each received answer will be significant because it is based on individual cognitive sphere of the addressee. There is one more secret of influencing force of reception of cognitive collisions in it.

As a result of interaction of cognitive areas, the subject of the advertising regarding a subsphere «Artefacts», gets attributes of objects of other subspheres («Person», «Society», «Nature»): it becomes a symbol of the status and means a formation of favorable family attitudes. As a whole, it makes us happy and free, and allows us to realize our creative potential, etc. More often advertising addresses to the subsphere of a person, since the overwhelming majority of texts

contains the specified reception and makes active the frames of «Feeling», «Value of the person». This is a reflection of the general principle of anthropocentrism. In a given area, the appeal to values of the person among which the leading one is freedom of self-expression, and freedom from restrictions prevails. So, the advertising of perfumery declares: «All in your hands!» («SOTY»), «All in my hands» («HUGO BOSS»), «the Life is fine, when you create it» («Guerlain»), «I am a LEADER. Freedom is my world» («E.Arden»); calls: «Create yourself. Do not imitate» («HUGO BOSS»), «Listen to your heart. Give freedom to your soul» («ZEN»). The given statements are the signature to facsimiles of attractive young men and girls, with which the potential consumer should correlate themselves. According to advertising, after being involved in the aroma of perfume, most people will find the desired freedom of self-expression.

### **Secondary advertising genres**

The genre form of a product cannot meet the requirements of information safety of a material. In that case, a composer of advertisements tries to veil an advertising orientation of a material. We shall briefly characterize this phenomenon.

The thematic, composite and stylistic unity (each genre form assumes the typical maintenance, structure and language registration of the text) is peculiar to texts of one genre. The sender, by preferring this or that genre form, applies to the reader for perception of this typical maintenance. The choice of a genre also provokes the author's intention. For example, an article raising a valid problem, invites for consideration and discussion. If expectations of the reader are justified and the text answers the imagination of the typical text of the given genre, the direct use of the genre form represents the standard. For advertising, by such core, an «initial» genre is the announcement is. However the author can resort to transformation of the genre form, consisting that the genre of one style is used for creation of another. As a result, genre forms which we, after Dementev (2000), name secondary genres are formed.

In an advertising discourse, can be noted the main «original» initial advertising genre (the announcement). Also, there exists a number of

peripheral advertising genres functions: an advertising article, an advertising note, the advertising reporting, advertising interview, an advertising essay, etc. Infringement of principles of information safety of a material at a genre level will be set an example of an advertising note, alongside with an interview and article, which are the most frequent genres. We shall consider an example: «15 years with You!»

The product company «Nika», manufactures furniture under the brand «Miass kitchens». Buyers for already a long time are encouraged by good price and the quality of «Miass kitchens». The factory is focused on manufacturing individual orders. The customer himself takes part in creation of a design project. A distinctive feature of «Miass kitchens» is constant involvement in various actions appealing to the buyers. For example, at the 15th anniversary of the company the sum of discount reached 15%. During November and December, the working hours of the central interior on Gagarin street, 20a were extended until 11 p.m. Now clients can, discuss freely after work the individual projects of kitchens and to issue the order while sitting in the cosy premises of the company. A phone number was noted in the evry end of the announcement. (Newspaper «Va-bank». 4 Nov., 2004).

The external text reminds a traditional note (a signal of «advertising» is hidden by the rubric form of submission of a material, a characteristic print for the newspaper, absence of visual components, the impression of severity is made, objectivity of a statement), draws attention of the addressee, foretelling a statement of certain bright, eloquent facts. The intriguing heading creates an additional effect and strengthens expectations. A composition is straight. An occasion (What? Where? When?) is located at the beginning of the text: the product company «Nika» celebrates its anniversary. However, instead of further description of details of a holiday, the laudatory estimation of activity of the company's activity and the information about new service terms makes purchasing easy («Clients can issue the order in cosy conditions of interior»). The purpose of «informing the reader» conceals the purpose of «promotion of the goods». Besides, there is a genre, i.e. a «mask».

The main idea «Buy!» is originally veiled and expressed indirectly (the begining makes impression that it was an anniversary which became an



occasion for writing a note), becomes obvious, owing to the strengthened argument. The same interaction of different discourses is observed at a language level.

On the one hand, informative lexicon (proper names: «Nika», «Miass kitchens», numerals: 15 years, 15 %, until 11 p.m., terminology: model, design-project, etc.), which are typical for a note are represented in the structure of ascertaining character («the Factory is focused on performance of individual orders»).. On the other hand, we shall note the use of different tense forms which are not typical for a newspaper ad. In an advertising note, the pragmatical feeder of something new as already known one is used: «Buyers for a long time have appreciated the production of the firm». The address block also testifies to a pragmatical orientation of the text - one of the structural elements of the advertising text (a signal of «advertising»).

### **Conclusion**

Advertising today brings into consideration manipulative technologies. Many texts function in an advertising discourse and do not follow the principles of information safety of a material. They they hide author's intentions, influence the subconsciousness of the addressee by preparing the transferred information and creating lacunas in the text such as implication of communication between the frames, substitution of situations and the transformation of the genre form of the statement. Knowing the nature of the advertising system and considering the problems facing it, we can assume that the situation will scarcely change in the near future. The awareness of ways of a manipulation remains in these conditions the only protection of the potential consumer.

In summary, it is worth noting that the manipulative practice is not the only aspect of consideration of questions of information safety in advertising discourse, since media texts, including promotional materials, should satisfy the requirements of tolerance and ethics. This information should correspond to a real state of affairs. Accordingly, the main principle of of maintaining information safety should be formulated more widely according to basic frameworks such as tolerance, ethics, transparency and truthfulness of the text placed in

mass media. The given aspects open real perspectives for the further research of issues concernign information safety in advertising discourse.

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# **RUSSIAN MEDIA-EDUCATION DEVELOPMENT AS AN INFORMATION SECURITY FACTOR: the URAL EXPERIENCE**

**Dr. Marina Myasnikova**  
**Journalism Faculty, Ural State University**

**Key words:** social transformation, media education, media communications, media approaches, television culture, information models.

## **Introduction**

An international conference taking place in Paris in June 2007 on the initiative of the UNESCO commission and the European Council and the Education Ministry of France was organized ten years after the Grunwald Declaration was adopted. The latter paved the way for media education all over the world. The above conference was of much interest for teachers, scientists, public organizations, media-officials. In the UNESCO official papers educational process in the field of media was defined as both theoretical and practical able “to master modern mass media communications”. (Media Education 1984:8)

The main objective of the conference was to determine how media-education process is going to spread all over the world; what difficulties it comes across; and what is to be done in the light of globalization along with the increase of centrifugal information processes and ambiguous mass-media boosting effect on life of rank and file people. It is no longer a secret that there are a number of perils in information sphere. The first guarantee for information security is awareness of the given perils. As it follows from the “Information Security Doctrine of Russian Federation”, these perils are supposed to be leading to an inappropriate legal basis, information market monopolization, mass-media institutions activities blockade. In addition, rights of an individual are infringed in the sphere of information activity, illegal pressure is born on a person’s mind, information manipulation is carried out in the form of its concealing and distortion. (“Doctrina informatsionnoy bezopasnosti Rossiyskoy Federatsii, 2000). Awareness of an individual about the main mass-media influence methods and of

modern informational and communicative technologies provides his information orientations and psychological protection.

This item is of much importance for mass-media education. Indeed, it is acknowledged worldwide that mass-media education is able to provide a person with a kind of protection against “informational explosion” as well as against the above-mentioned perils. How does media-education deal with it? What difficulties appear on this way? How are they really being solved? These are the questions to be answered below.

### **Media education in Russia**

Media education in Russia as a specific example of educational activity has always been a sphere for enthusiasts; it has been associated with Soviet educational and cultural development models.

Quite recently Russian researchers suggested educational models which are based on various concepts, aims, tasks, organizational forms and methods. It is possible to divide these models into some groups: 1) educational and informational (history, theory and media language study); 2) educational and ethical (moral, religious and philosophical problems analysis based on media material); 3) aesthetic (artistic taste development and media culture works development); 4) practical since media communication means practical utilization. There also exist the educational development models (deep understanding, imagination, critical perception as far as media texts of any type is concerned). It is worth saying that the aesthetic theory has been prevailing many years in Russia.

In the meantime, the above models have never existed in a pure way; they were always closely interconnected. Media widely dispersed new informational technologies which made possible to integrate and synthesize them. The above models were and are based on the well-known world media education theories: “aesthetic”, “practical”, “cultural”, “injection”, (“preventive”, “protective”) and “critical” at last. The models are based both on general didactic principles (comprehensive personality development, theory and practice interconnection, availability, systematic approach, etc.) and the

principles connected with media culture features (audio and visual perception development, media-texts analysis skills); the models are characterized by lots of variations, they may be entirely or partly introduced into educational process; the teaching methods are based on creative role play cycles; they may be used both in educational and extra educational activities. We dwell on the connection of media education activity with mass-media proper. Before the beginning 1990s the interest to the educational role of mass media was focused mainly on the person upbringing study by means of mass media (generally aesthetic).

However, little attention was drawn to the main task of media education — that is training for young generation on how to critically communicate with mass media. Today the most promising approach is supposed to be pooling the efforts of mass-media teachers with universities journalism department's representatives and mass-media employees themselves. The idea to use television in media educational purposes seems to be very attractive among Russian media education officials. The interesting schoolchildren practical media educational "practical experience" was introduced in September 1991 into the morning program of the first Russian channel; it was a five-minute block called "School News". It was the first time in the history of Russian TV when teenagers worked out the scenario, acted as presenters, took part in editing. Russian researchers Pensin, Spichkin, Usov, Sharikov and others wrote much about television potential for Russian media-education development. Spichkin claimed that "it is television that might be viewed as the media education system establishment core..." (Spichkin, 1999: 10).

Within the frameworks of the educational discipline Television Culture prepared by the author of the given article and published in Ekaterinburg in 1998 the special "Television Games" program designated for 1-11 forms secondary schools pupils was worked out. The program was tested in the language gymnasium N 13 (Ekaterinburg) and at summer media schools. It was brought into existence at the same gymnasium. The author of the program was awarded the American prize named after Daphna Hiyer. However

Russian television media educational possibilities have not been thoroughly examined and studied and are being used quite superficially. As Russian experts believe, theoretical and practical media educational model should be formed with the use of mass media information, regional and local television being the first in programs producing aimed both at audience media competence level increase and television viewers involvement into media texts creation. This model might be worked out only by joint efforts in cooperation of journalists and media teachers. (Korochenskiy, 2006: 316-323).

### **Ural perspective**

The regional media education center was set up in Ekaterinburg in 2007 on the initiative of Education Ministry the Sverdlovsk region. It became a bright confirmation of bringing the idea on media education practical model established with the local television use. The new center initiated its activity in three directions: creative, educational and research.

The first direction is connected with educational social television (there is no parallel in any Russian Federation subject); the second direction is connected with audience media culture improvement, capable of influencing television projects content taking active part in their fulfillment; and at last the third direction is connected with the scientific concept development and the development of artistic and information television channel model; it is also connected with sociological research arrangement basing on television audience demand. "Kamerton" television educational project includes 5 programs in dialogue, polilogue, artistic and publicistics formats: "Golosa" ("Voices") – dialogue with experts on video questionnaire basis; "Cabinet" - intellectual intercourse; "Reshai!" ("Decide!") – talk-lesson in teachers and pupils debate format; newsreel "Epoch"; "Chas Dvortza" ("The Palace Hour") – which is being broadcast both in the form of newspaper column and on the site pages; it reflects convergency media process. An interactive media system is also working within the center framework including television, periodical press ("Media, Education, Society: cooperation horizons"); Internet site ("Media Education: Ural Example"). Nowadays Russian media education has been mastering the world experience.

That is why we are so much interested in conclusions drawn at the Paris conference mentioned at the beginning of the given article. It was declared at the conference that worldwide media education (despite considerable success) HAS NOT passed over from the experimental stage to the stage of entire practical operation, and the media education necessity HAS NOT received proper approval from society. Meanwhile, to adapt to rapid social transformations and to learn resist the powers and the owner's manipulative activities as well as mass media serving them, more and more people need skills and habits enabling them to critically analyze information from all sorts of various symbolic systems. It should be mentioned that one can observe it more distinctly in Russia where social transformations have taken place that quickly and vigorously that it lead to distressing circumstances. This phenomenon touched mass consciousness especially painfully and it resulted in Russian traditional moral values devaluation, popular culture propagation, which was based on violence, anti-social behavior tolerance, low instinct etc. That is why the most urgent task today is to consolidate international community for wide media education spreading and its application not only in the sphere of pedagogy but in mass media as well.

Twelve recommendations were worked at the conference in Paris (within the framework of four Grunwald Declaration items): educational programs working out; teachers training, special research carrying out and international education in media education sphere. They are extremely useful for Russian media education naturally. The most detailed definition of media education is on the agenda today. The item of differentiating between media education as a pedagogical instrument and the subject of study is no longer topical. Three principal tasks are important today, i.e., critical analysis skills development, interaction and creativity in media communication encouragement; providing audience an access to all kinds of media for taking part in democratic life. And this is just security foundation which means "every social subjects information interests, rights and liberties protection" (Prohorov 2004: 201).

As far as teachers training is concerned it should be based on the youth media demands knowledge, should use new methods presupposing

active role on the part of students themselves; closer relationships should be built between school (university) and outer world. Media education is integrated into the whole educational system which in its turn leads to consolidation of all parts interested. These parts are not supposed to be only teachers and parents but politicians responsible for the decision making, officials, experts and media professionals. Media education should be integrated into professional journalists, film producers, editors, announcers and television presenters training. In Russia the first step to arrange professional media teachers training was the official university specialization "Media education" 03.13.30 registration made by Education Ministry in 2002. In December 2007 new Regional media education center (Ekaterinburg) initiated refreshing courses for educational community in the sphere of media pedagogy which were entitled Television Media Education Problems. The course program included lectures, training, master classes, participation in "Reshai!" ("Decide!") talk-lesson shooting. In April 2008 "Children's animation studio setting up experience" and "Children's media school setting up experience" (within the framework of educational cycle "Children Screen Media Fundamentals") master-classes were held. The importance of summer schools, seminars and festivals for media educational initiatives promotion has been stressed in Paris. Self-education aspect, as well as media education one, has been touched upon there to help children and adults to become free and active society members capable to withstand quickly developing informational society perils and threats. As it has already been mentioned, higher education is a link between specialists training and research work and it is being energetically introduced into the media educational complex. The same concerns Russia. The Internet broadcasting contributes to experience and knowledge exchange.

The fourth main Grunwald Declaration item concerned media international cooperation. The first leading Russian and European media schools representatives meeting in new Ural regional media education center welcomed not only experts from Moscow, Taganrog, Ekaterinburg, Kachkanar, but also a Cambridge University graduate



BBC executive producer, director and script writer of educational films for children on "Discovery" channel Nikki Crowter from Great Britain, a country famous for its old mass media educational activity traditions.

## **Conclusion**

Basing on the above-mentioned we have become convinced that "media education faces the entire society including journalists who, as often as not, are the first to be affected by destructive manipulative technologies, and sometimes having no opportunity to think over the events promptly, translate their own traumatic emotional experience and inadequate reactions along mass communication channels." (Pronin & Pronina, 2008: 31)

Under such circumstances media education is a real informational epoch and modern "mediatized" society imperative. It is really able to resist informational threats and perils and to become an important factor ensuring the society informational security.

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# NATIONALLY ORIENTED MEDIA: PREPARING A MODERN JOURNALIST

Rafail Iskhakov

Journalism Faculty, Ural State University

**Key words:** national media, media history.

The specifics of the Ural media is defined by its so-called Eurasian position. For Asia they seem to be looking as European, from the European viewpoint they inherited Asian frameworks. A peculiar reflection of this situation stems from Bashkir journalism. Journalism in Bashkir lands (later Bashkortostan) appeared 170 years ago. The first official daily newspaper *Orenburgskie gubernskije vedomosti* was printed in Ufa in 1838. With division of Orenburg gubernia (administrative region) in Ufa's and Orenburg's gubernias in 1865 the above newspaper was released as *Ufimskie gubernskije vedomosti* and came out with this title until 1917.

In the early XX century age the national press has greatly blossomed. The region of Orenburg initiated printing of ten legal newspapers and journal in Turk language: satirical journal *Sinertke* («Grasshopper», 1906), *Uklar* («Darts», 1906), *Karsyga* («Hawk», 1906—1907), *Sukesh* («Hammer», 1906—1919), public political and artistic journal *Shuro* («Advice», 1908—1917), *Karmak* («Hook», 1915—1917). In memory of the famous Turkish thinker Miftahetdine Akmulla in the city of Troitsk there existed an illustrated humorous journal *Akmulla* (1911—1915). In Ufa were published religious newspapers *Al-galami al-islami* («Islam's world», 1906—1907) and a journal *Maglyumat mahkamaja I shirgia I yrymburtia* («Herald Orenburg's Mohammedan Spiritual meeting», 1908—1911, 1916—1917). A deputy of the Second State Duma from Ufa's gubernia (administrative region) K. Hasanov has set up a weekly newspaper *Duma* (1907) in St. Petersburg.

In 1977 in Bashkir language there were in total 24 newspapers with a circulation of 346 thousand copies.

In the late XX century the Republic of Bashkortostan had a great variety of different kinds of print media. They included state, public newspapers and magazines, as well as those expressing interests of

commercial structures and individuals. In 1995 there existed 234 publications with a circulation of 1,7 million copies. 201 of them were printed in Bashkir language.

The study the Bashkir media history seems to be perspective for theory and practice of journalism. It can be explored on the basis of the dynamic and steady-state aspects. The dynamic one is the subject of journalism history; therefore it is worth speaking about print media in terms of geopolitics and ethnoculture.

Disintegration of geopolitical unity of the USSR and the appearance of the Commonwealth of Independent States (CIS) have put the researcher of journalism in front of the gnoseological problem. In March 2005 and September 2006 the author has already paid attention to some theoretical-methodological problems (Iskhakov, 2006a: 41-48, 2006b: 196-199).

Traditional methods of studying journalism become insufficient since turbulent nature of its formation requires from a researcher the use of different methodologies. No doubts are about using the comparative method. XIX century has left a concept, according to which only settled folk created the progressive civilization. Meanwhile, Central Asian nations were imbued with sluggishness and severity but laid down many civilized principles of living.

The History of the Orient media seems to be interesting for the students. It became clear that the students of Journalism Faculty of the Ural State University favoring this subject, to some extent at least. The most important topic to be examined by them are as follows:

History of Eastern journalism	40,0 percents
National Heritage in writing	30,0 percents
Others	20,0 percents
History of printing in Baltic States	10,0 percents

Interests of young researchers were developed within journalism of Middle Asian republics such as Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, Azerbaijan and Tajikistan. For instance, Ekaterina Deryagina investigated the first ombudsman journal of Turkmenistan *Dayan* («Handhold»). In turn, Olga Bykova profoundly investigated the level of censorship in

Uzbekistan. Masha Dmitrieva, stemming from the fact that Tajikistan has more than 300 printing media, has analyzed the opportunities for enacting legislation there, etc.

The history of national printing is considered to have been developing within the context of national histories. Exploring this experience makes the process of teaching modern journalists much more vivid and alive. As a whole, it creates new scientific perspectives suitable for studying them according to comparative media theories.

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# **TWO-WAY INFORMATION IN PUBLIC RELATIONS: HOW TO MAKE THE SPHERE MORE EFFECTIVE TO THE AUDIENCE**

**Dr. Galina Gerasimova**

**Department of Social Technologies, Tumen Oil and Gas University**

**Key words:** public relations, information message, effective communication.

## **Introduction**

Why are some public relations strategies effective in one culture, but not in another? Why do Americans or British respond to some types of messages, and Russians to other types? The answer may lie in the difference between low and high context styles of communication.

## **Avoiding ineffective messages**

In the Anglo-American approach to public relations, verbal and written communications are generally low context. The message is direct and focuses on individual achievement with an emphasis on action or “doing”. For example, a typical low context public relations message might state directly that the company or product is good, leaving little room for the public to draw their own conclusions.

By contrast, public relations in Russia tend to adopt a high context approach. From a cultural perspective, this relies primarily on nonverbal communications and collective responsibilities, with an emphasis on relationships and an orientation towards “being”. (Keeping, 2002: 90) The high context approach is less direct and is often based on a story that enables the public to draw their own conclusion based on the context of the message. Consequently, a public relations strategy in Russia that relies on low context communication not only risks failure by delivering an ineffective message, but may also offend the public.

The Anglo-American model is based on the concepts of individualism and competition, two dominant features of U.S. and British cultures. This approach will not play well in cultures that emphasize collectivist ideals and cooperation. In the U.S., public relations strategies focus on the values of independence, self-direction, and individual gain, as opposed to

the values of conformity, group-directed actions and benevolence to others. By contrast, the most effective public relations strategy in high context cultures reflects an indirect and more implied approach to the message.

Waiting for public reaction to a decision does not usually help build effective relationships between an organization and the public. In fact, in many situations, a negative reaction by the public can reinforce poor or bad relationships. The extent of public disagreement with announced decisions can contribute to even further deterioration in the relationship. Therefore, what might appear to be the most efficient strategy at the outset can often turn out to be counter-productive, and damage the organization's image and relationships?. This is due largely to the potential for increased conflict that comes with an angry public response. The response to an increased level of conflict will require better quality information, effective communication and mutually beneficial relationships.

### **Collaboration with the publics: favoring what?**

Unfortunately, one-way models of public relations are often not consistent with effective communication and the development of the mutually beneficial relationships that are needed to overcome conflict. This is largely a result of the fact that the interests of the public are not always accurately identified, if considered at all. Instead, organizations, especially in conflict situations, revert to familiar, old patterns of behaviour that contribute little to the development of public confidence.

The emphasis on one-way models suggests that public opinion can be managed or manipulated, much like the flow of information. In theory, a good public relations approach will employ effective communications methods to disseminate high quality, trustworthy information to build and maintain mutually beneficial relationships. In practice, however, negative events or crises often alter the way the public is informed. In these situations, it is easy to slip into habits that do not convey high quality information or use effective communication tools. An adversarial situation can easily result in an "us-against-them" approach to public communication.

If the goal is to build public confidence and trust in an organization, then clearly a different method of public relations is required. A public

relations approach that emphasizes two-way communication will not only improve the flow of good quality information but increase the potential for developing good quality relationships.

Organizations, companies and governments are adopting more inclusive, participatory approaches to public relations practices. They realize that effective public relations, based on strong relationships between the organization and the public, will ultimately reduce the costs to the organization. In turn, cost savings will reduce the amount of time devoted to conflicts with the public and in more effective implementation of projects, as the public realizes that its interests have been clearly articulated through shared decision-making processes. In this context, public involvement can be seen as an asset to effective decision-making, rather than as a barrier.

Two-way information occurs when all stakeholders and decision-makers understand each other's interests in a collaborative way. The process begins with consultation and intensive forms of public participation. A consultative approach suggests a willingness on the part of the decision-maker to integrate the views of the stakeholders into the decision-making process. Another form of participation is shared decision-making and consensus decision-making.

Value of public participation is that the public should have a say in decisions about actions that affect their lives. The consultative process should meet the interests and needs of all participants. The public participation process communicates to participants how their input affected the decision. The stakeholders are given the information they need to participate in a meaningful way. ([http...](http://))

### **Conclusion**

Companies and governments are worth utilizing two-way models of public relations. Effective shared decision-making requires strong trustworthy relationship between the organization and the public. Good two-way communications will facilitate a better understanding of the public's interests as well as their positions.

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